The Nation.

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The Week.

The closing days of the tariff debate brought out some good speeches in the Senate, none more effective than the protest of Mr. Pettigrew of South Dakota against the duty of $2 a thousand on white pine, which is double the rate fixed in the McKinley law. This will shut out Canadian lumber, and enable a few owners of timber in Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota to pocket millions of dollars a year from the many thousands of people in this country who must buy lumber. "It is a tax," said Mr. Pettigrew, "not to go into the Treasury, but a tax of $2 on a thousand to be paid into the pockets of these enormously rich men who own the timber," and he asked his Republican colleagues, "How can you justify it? How can you go before the consumers in the States where this lumber is situated and justify it?" The Senator from South Dakota declared that "the bill is full of just such propositions from beginning to end," and expressed this opinion of the measure as a whole, which will be endorsed by impartial people who have carefully studied it:

> "I have watched the passage through the two houses of Congress of the last three or four tariff bills. I was in the other house in 1883, and in this body in 1890 and 1894, when tariff bills were passed, and now again during the pendency of this bill, and this is the worst tariff bill ever conceived or produced. As tariff bills are produced, their framers become more expert in juggling with phrases, covering up what they intend to do and so fixing them that the classes will be enabled to plunder the masses."

In his opening speech on the tariff conference report, Mr. Dingley said without a blush that "he regretted that the Senate had not allowed the retroactive clause of the bill to stand, at least until the bill was about to become a law, because if it had remained, $25,000,000 would have been saved to the Treasury." This was an avowal that the retroactive clause was a "bluff," intended to scare importers from the exercise of their legal rights. So it was said at the time by the opponents of the clause. It was affirmed that Congress had no intention of passing such a provision, and that it would be rejected by the courts if passed. Now it is admitted that the main object was to intimidate importers. But would the Treasury have gained $20,000,000 in this sneaking, underhand way? It is impossible to think so. Any merchant or manufacturer possessing the capital or credit to make importations in advance of his wants would have done so in either case, relying on the courts to upset an obviously unconstitutional act. The only thing that the Government has lost has been a long-drawn litigation, with a prospect of humiliating defeat in the end.

Mr. Dingley's cry for haste with the tariff, on the ground that every day's delay meant a loss to the Treasury of $100,000, sounds hollow in the face of the actual returns. In New York the receipts for Dingley's first day were $128,000, as against $361,000 for Wilson's last day—a clear loss of more than $200,000 caused by the advent of Dingley. Taking the figures for the country as a whole, the comparison is still more instructive. On July 20, when Dingley was clamoring for speed with his tariff to save the Treasury from loss, the receipts from customs were $1,679,631; on July 21, $2,433,435; on July 22, $1,153,890. Mr. Dingley's first full day, July 26, brought in $674,521—in other words, a loss to the Treasury of $900,000 a day, taking the average of the three days when he was shouting that every day's delay cost the Government $100,000. The deficit for July up to date is $10,000,000, and would be much larger but for the extraordinary receipts under the Wilson bill. When the unaided Dingley bill gets to work, we shall have some magnificent monthly deficits to carry the fall elections with.

The Senate committee to investigate the civil-service system has discontinued operations until next fall. It has conspicuously failed in the object of its appointment, which was to discredit the reform. In point of fact, its work has been distinctly favorable to the merit system, as must be the case with every investigation. For example, the Government Printing-Office, with its thousands of employees, has been the object of special assaults by those who would restore the old régime of appointment through political "pull," but the evidence taken as to this establishment has conclusively proved that the application of the civil-service rules has resulted in a great saving of money as well as a marked increase of efficiency. Senator Pritchard and his colleagues of the investigating committee will doubtless make a feint of further effort to establish the spoilsmen's case, but they must see, like everybody else, how hopeless is such a task.

The committees of the House resemble those of the last House almost as closely as differences in membership will permit. There is scarcely a change in the chairmanships of the dozen or fifteen most important. The list illustrates afresh the great advantage which a district gains from keeping its Representative long in service, since a man of only moderate ability will thus ultimately work his way to a committee position of importance. One reason why New York has fared so poorly in comparison with Maine in this matter is the strength of the "rotation-in-office" principle in this State, as against the pronounced tendency down East to reëlect a Representative term after term. New York fares rather better than usual in the committee assignments this time, and one reason is the fact that an uncommonly large proportion of the present delegation are old members.

Poor Mr. Sherman, on his way to Amagansett, leaves behind him a train of interviews on the subject of the famous Bering Sea dispatch and cognate questions. He says that he did sign the dispatch, and that it was the subject of careful consideration between himself and the President, and that they were in full accord about it. This puts the responsibility for the "shirt-sleeves dispatch" where it must fall eventually, because the President is responsible in a peculiar sense for our relations with foreign governments. We are sorry to believe that that dispatch embodies Mr. McKinley's ideas of what belongs to the dignity of the nation, but, however that may be, there are still some unsolved mysteries connected with it. One is the question how Mr. Sherman came to tell Mr. Smalley, the London *Times's* correspondent, that there was no such dispatch in existence; that is, no dispatch of an irritating character. The other is how the dispatch came to be published. Perhaps Mr. Sherman does not consider it irritating to accuse your correspondent of bad faith. Even prize-fighters think differently. The correspondence that passed between the backers of Corbett and Fitzsimmons was much aggravated by charges of this kind. According to one interview, Mr. Sherman is convinced that Lord Salisbury does not consider it irritating, because he has not answered it at all, and that the only persons ruffled by it are the editors of the English newspapers. On the whole, we think that it is time for Mr. Sherman to take a vacation.

The answer of the Japanese Minister to Secretary Sherman's note of June 25 is a calm discussion of the legal and diplomatic questions involved. Minister Hoshi spikes the Jingo gun, and wrings the soul of Roosevelt, by repeating that "Japan has absolutely no designs of any kind whatever inimical to Hawaii." Japan has, in fact, no motive in interven-

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ing in the annexation business except to safeguard the rights of 25,000 of her subjects resident in the islands. That is no crime; it is not even an insult, warranting Mr. Roosevelt in organizing the naval militia on the great lakes for the purpose of repelling the Japanese ironclads when they appear in those waters. Mr. Sherman had asserted that the "vested rights" of the Japanese in Hawaii would be respected by this country. The Japanese Minister now asks him what he means by "vested rights." Does he mean what Mr. Bayard meant in 1886 when he told the German Minister that this country would expect "the well-established rights" of its citizens in the Pacific islands, then put under a German protectorate, to be respected? Mr. Bayard explained the phrase to mean that American citizens would not be disturbed in their rights of residence or intercourse or discriminated against. If Secretary Sherman intends to adopt this American contention, well and good. But the Japanese Minister fears that nothing of the kind is intended; that the extension of our naturalization and immigration and customs and navigation laws to Hawaii would work serious harm to Japanese interests, and that the pending claims of Japan against Hawaii would be difficult of collection after annexation. If these fears are groundless, it is for Mr. Sherman to say so, and give a guarantee that they are. Japan is perfectly within her rights in wanting to know about this; she would be derelict in her duty if she did not want to know.

Silver bullion in London touched on Wednesday the lowest point in its history, selling at 26⅜ pence per ounce, as against 27 pence, its previous lowest, in March, 1894. During the break in silver in 1894, wheat sold in New York at 60 cents per bushel, a decline of 7 cents since the opening of that year. The bimetallists made much of this simultaneous decline in wheat and silver. It was in vain that students of the commercial markets pointed out the fact that the world's wheat crop of 1893 had turned out 61,000,000 bushels larger than the crop of 1892, and that the outlook for 1894 favored an even larger yield. As a matter of fact, the United States alone, in 1894, produced 50,000,000 bushels more wheat than it produced in 1893, while the whole world yielded 50,500,000 bushels more wheat than in 1893, and 121,500,000 more than in 1892. But this did not convince the bimetallists. Wheat and silver were declining in price together—what further proof could be asked by a reasonable man?

These *post-hoc* reasoners must now consider the present movement of the markets. Silver bullion is selling in London exactly 5¼ pence per ounce below the price of a year ago; wheat in New York is selling 18½ cents higher than it sold a year ago. The student of statistics is as ready now as he was in 1894 to explain the reason for both movements; he will point out that the world's wheat yield of the past season fell nearly ninety million bushels under that of 1895, and that the outlook for this season's harvest, in the world at large, foreshadows no increase, and possibly a further shortage. As for the decline in silver, he needs to point only to the fact that American exports of silver bullion, for the twelve months ending June 30, 1897, have increased $1,400,000 over the same twelve months a year ago, and $14,600,000 over 1895; this, too, at a moment when the world at large is dispensing rapidly with the use of silver.

It is encouraging to find that an effective fight is to be made, in at least one State in the South, against the threatened relapse into barbarism through lynch law. While the Mayor of Griffin says that he would have helped to lynch a negro the other day if he had known that the outrage was to be committed outside of the city limits, and the editor of an Atlanta daily applauds those who hang and even burn men accused of crime, the Governor of Georgia issues a manly protest against the practice, in which he impresses upon the people "the enormity of the wrong done by so-called lynch law to the reputation of the State, to civilization, and to the rights of man." Gov. Atkinson tells officers of the law that it is their duty to take the lives of their assailants, if necessary to protect prisoners in their charge, and urges the passage of a law requiring a thorough investigation in every case of lynching, and providing adequate punishment when the officer falls short of the full measure of his duty. Georgia has a Governor of whom it ought to be proud, and it must be that the people will in the end rally to his support. Hopeful signs that this will happen are found in the vigorous expressions of opinion against lynching by leading citizens of the State which are contained in a letter from Atlanta published in the *Evening Post* of Saturday.

The tendency to impose what are essentially legislative powers and duties upon the judiciary suffers a check in Connecticut at the hands of the judiciary itself, through a decision just rendered by the Supreme Court. A law had been passed providing that, when a street-railway company wants to begin business, it shall submit its plans to the city council, which has sixty days within which to establish regulations for the location, construction, and operation of the line; but that, if the council shall not act within this period, any judge of the Superior Court, upon application from the company, may exercise the same powers. Such a contingency arose in Norwalk, and Judge Hall decided how the road should be located and constructed. The Supreme Court annuls his action, on the ground that the law under which he proceeded is unconstitutional, because it imposes upon the judiciary powers which are essentially legislative, whereas such powers are explicitly restricted by the Constitution to the legislative branch of the government. In this case only the duty of making certain regulations as to the conduct of a street railway was immediately at stake, but the decision holds that the whole question of a separation of the three departments of the government was involved, and that "the power to make the Superior Court a subordinate legislative body for one purpose involves the power to so utilize it for every purpose."

The Counsel for the Corporation of Brooklyn has rendered an opinion which is certainly in the interest of humanity. The people of New York have ordained in their Constitution that goods produced by convicts shall not be sold or given away to any person, firm, or corporation. But they also ordained that such goods might be disposed of "to the State or any political division thereof, or for or to any public institution owned or managed and controlled by the State or any political division thereof." The municipalities of the State are, of course, corporations, and are thus prohibited by name from using convict-made goods, unless such municipalities are "political divisions of the State." The opinion just rendered is to the effect that cities are such political divisions. The debates in the constitutional convention plainly show that it was believed that the public institutions in the various cities would make use of the prison products. Indeed, it is not improbable that this belief led to the adoption of the clause in the Constitution which forbade the traffic in these products. Moreover, the Legislature explicitly ordained that the labor of the convicts in the penitentiaries should be devoted primarily to the counties in which the penitentiaries were located, "and to the towns, cities, and villages therein." It further provided that the prices of these products furnished to the political subdivisions of the counties should be fixed, in New York and Kings Counties, by the Commissioners of Charities and Correction. It seems, however, that the county of Kings is restrained by law from purchasing supplies, and hence the duty would necessarily devolve on the authorities of the city of Brooklyn, or else the statute would be futile. While the possibility of this result does not make the statute constitutional, it is of some weight in determining the question. If the statute is unconstitutional, the fate of our con-

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victs promises to be miserable in the extreme, for there would then be no way of providing them with any regular useful employment, and we might as well set up the tread-mill once more.

The managers of our transportation companies are so constantly the subjects of denunciation that it seems a rather irregular thing to praise them; nevertheless, they are occasionally exposed to such treatment. The New York Central Railroad Company, for instance, has settled some claims made against it by the village of Frankfort in a manner which can only be described as generous. It seems that when the West Shore Railway was constructed, the people of Frankfort expended $77,000 in buying the site on which the repair-shops of that railway were erected, supposing, of course, that these shops would be permanently used, and that the population of the village would be thus increased. As a matter of fact, the population did increase, and the village spent nearly $77,000 more in building a school-house and constructing water works. The Central Railroad, which had bought the property of the West Shore at foreclosure sale, found after a time that the Frankfort shops could not be advantageously maintained, and transferred the machinery elsewhere, thus causing a great decrease in the population of the village and in the value of property situated there. It seems probable from the manner in which the Central Road acquired the property of the West Shore that it could not have been compelled by the village of Frankfort to maintain its shops there. At all events, it could have resisted such a claim in the courts and delayed its adjudication indefinitely. Instead of doing so, it has agreed to turn over all its unused shops and lands at Frankfort to the citizens, to be leased by them to manufacturing establishments; to pay one-third of the water-works bonds; and to assume the payment of the whole of the debt incurred for the school building. Damages for breach of this agreement are fixed at $100,000. It is reported to be the general opinion at Frankfort that the Central Road has behaved very honorably in this matter, and this opinion will not be confined to that village. Money spent in such a way by a railroad brings a return in public favor which may be worth more in the end than a legal victory.

It takes some weeks after the adjournment of a Legislature to fathom all the absurdities in the way of lawmaking which it has perpetrated. In Nebraska what is called a life certificate for a teacher—that is, a voucher of fitness for service, which, once received, answers for all time—has hitherto been granted to any graduate of the State university or State normal school who has proved his efficiency by actual teaching experience, and to other experienced teachers who have successfully passed the required examination. It has just been discovered that an act was pushed through the last Legislature without attracting notice, which authorizes the issue of such certificates on presentation of diplomas granted by private normal schools which make a showing that they are possessed of property valued at $100,000. The idea that the ownership of a fixed amount of property insures a high standard of education on the part of an institution is only less grotesque than in the case of a man. The finishing touch of this extraordinary performance is the fact that the recognition of "the money power" was made by a Legislature in which the Populists held absolute control.

That is a fine point in theology which the Hod-Hoisting Engineers' Union has propounded to Bishop Potter—"If a church or cathedral be built by non-union men, should it be attended by union worshippers?" The matter is not so simple as it might look. A sense of peace—peace "with myself, the world, and Thee," as the hymn says—is essential to the spirit of true worship. But how could a union worshipper be at peace with the world, or even with himself, when within walls which unhallowed non-union hands had reared? Such a man would come under the Scriptural injunction bidding worshippers who have aught against their brother to go first and be reconciled to him—in this case, to go out and revile him as a "scab" and take his job away from him. The Hod-Hoisters do well to call attention to these matters, and a stanch upholder of trades unions like Bishop Potter will find it hard to say why churches should not wear the union label, as well as bread and shoes. Here is a great chance, undoubtedly, to bring the masses to church. Let everything about the sacred edifice be guaranteed strictly union-made; let the Scripture lesson be slightly altered so as to read, "Except the Union build the house, they labor in vain that build it," and the problem would be solved. At any rate, if workingmen do not flock to the Cathedral of St. John the Divine when it is completed, their excuse and justification will be, before the world—non-union men were employed in constructing it. Moreover, they can truthfully say that they warned the ecclesiastical authorities in time.

In the House of Commons on Monday, on a motion to pursue the inquiry into the Jameson raid, Mr. Chamberlain defiantly eulogized Rhodes, affirming that he had "done nothing to affect his personal character as a man of honor," and asserting that the Government proposed to honor him instead of punishing him; and the House, by a vote of 304 to 77, negatived Mr. Stanhope's motion to push the inquiry to the end. This, be it remembered, was only a few days after Mr. Hawksley, Rhodes's solicitor, had openly challenged the Commons to call upon him, if it dared, for the tell-tale telegrams in his possession. The fact that the Liberal leaders acquiesced in this cowardly policy of hushing up the inquiry can be accounted for only on one supposition. It is the one openly asserted in the Continental press, namely, that the telegrams would have involved members of the royal family as well as the Government.

No more striking testimony to the benefits conferred on Egypt by the English occupation has been given than that of the son of a man who was exiled for deeds committed in support of the revolt of Arabi Pasha. Writing to an Arabic journal, in reply to an attack made by another Arabic journal on the English, this person enumerates the following differences between the present and the past condition of the Egyptian people. Formerly the Government collected taxes to the amount of nearly $23 per feddan, or acre; now the taxes are about $7.50 per feddan. Formerly the rulers insulted, flogged, and imprisoned the subjects with impunity; to-day the poorest peasant is protected against assault, and corporal punishment is abolished. Formerly the peasants were plundered by the whole body of office-holders; now not even the Khedive can take a piece of land without the owner's consent. The rulers formerly monopolized the Nile water for the irrigation of their own lands, but under the present government the poorest fellah has the same water rights as the highest dignitary. Offices were formerly given to those who paid the most for them, but they are now allotted to the most capable. The public lands and the public funds were treated by the Khedive as his own possessions, while they are now preserved for the common advantage. The Khedive and his officers and friends used to compel the fellaheen to dig canals and construct embankments for the improvement of their private estates, in addition to what was required of them for public purposes, whereas labor is now compulsory only in times of danger. Several other particulars are mentioned in this remarkable tribute to the advantages of orderly government over despotism, which concludes:

> "Such are the benefits of the British occupation, and I do not understand how the pretended patriots who run counter to the existing régime can deny their existence, seeing that they shine as the sun at noonday. The pretended patriots would do better by keeping silence and leaving the occupiers of the country to complete their humanitarian work."

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THE PROPOSED MONETARY COMMISSION.

As the extra session drew to a close, it was evident that Mr. McKinley had fatally inverted the order of his subjects. If he had really and intelligently had the reform of the currency at heart, there is no doubt that he could have secured it, or at least a long step towards it, by giving it first place and pushing it with all his power. To have secured the appointment of a currency commission would have been a simple affair. Even some positive legislation might have been obtained, if Mr. McKinley had thrown himself into the task with the same absorbing energy that Mr. Cleveland expended on the Herculean labor of getting *his* extra session to repeal the Sherman law. He would have had with him the gathered impetus of the great electoral victory, of months of discussion, of an aroused and expectant public sentiment. But all this he threw away when, reversing the order of his letter of acceptance, reversing the order of his inaugural address, he put the tariff first before Congress and gave to currency reform not so much as the honor of a passing reference. His tacit orders to sacrifice everything to the tariff have been but too well obeyed. Keeping back his currency message to the end of the session, he finds that it, too, has been sacrificed to the tariff. The keepers of his honor in the Senate made pledges that no such message should be sent, or that, if it were sent, the Republicans in that body would pay no attention to it. The tariff has not been jeopardized, but everything else, including the President's authority, has been.

The closing scene of the session had something of the appearance of a farce. The oft-heralded message on the subject of a currency commission was sent in a few hours before adjournment. The House passed, practically without debate, a bill to carry it into effect. The Senate paid no attention to it, although a few Senators made contemptuous allusions to it, and adjourned after merely referring it to a committee. The subject therefore goes over to the next session. It all looks like a put-up job, as though there had been no intention or expectation of doing anything except to present the appearance of taking an interest in the question of currency reform. The text of the message shows that it is only a languid interest at best. Indeed, the message is at cross-purposes with itself. It says that "the soundness of our currency is nowhere questioned." If that is true, what is a currency commission wanted for? They that are whole need no physician, but they that are sick. The sole and only reason why an amendment is needed is because the soundness of the currency is questioned —because every condition which has made it an object of apprehension and terror in the past exists to-day so far as its own constitution goes—because any untoward event in the commercial world may bring on the same spasms that were experienced in 1893-'94-'95. If nobody questions the soundness of the currency, Congress was justified in adjourning without taking any action on the message, and Senator Aldrich was justified in the sneering remarks attributed to him regarding it.

We believe, nevertheless, that the President was entirely sincere in sending the message, and that when he said that the soundness of the currency is nowhere questioned he meant its soundness to-day, or for some short period while the gold reserve lasts. We believe, too, that if he had a little more firmness, or if the pesky Congressmen had let him alone, he would have sent in the message much earlier, so that at least a debate might have been had on it sufficient to start a similar discussion in the country. All the advantages that might have been reaped from such a debate will now be lost, and the course of the Administration in reference to the subject will be exposed to something like ridicule. At all events the Bryanites will say that all the talk about the need of currency reform is insincere, and they will point to the message, and the time and manner of its reception by Congress, as a fizzle.

Of course, the matter cannot be allowed to rest here. Something must be done to rescue the Administration, if not the currency, from the present trouble. We read in the papers that Mr. H. H. Hanna is about to call his committee together to put in train the steps that were indicated by the resolution of the Indianapolis convention. That resolution required the appointment of a commission similar to the one recommended by President McKinley in the event that Congress should fail to appoint one. We read in the papers, also, that Secretary Gage will be prepared to recommend a plan of his own when Congress meets in regular session, and this, we have reason to believe, is true. As both the Secretary and the Indianapolis people are working to the same end, it is obvious that they ought not to work at cross purposes. Harmony among the friends of sound money is indispensable. They will have hard enough work to carry any plan. Two different plans would work the ruin of both. Therefore, Mr. Hanna's committee, in our judgment, ought to take no step that does not meet the full concurrence of the Secretary.

So much time has been lost by waiting and so much influence squandered by dabbling with international bimetallism, that the chances are against any action whatever on the part of Congress. If the country is fairly prosperous, as now seems probable, thanks to large crops and good prices, the pressure to do something in the way of currency reform will be removed. Congressmen will say things are going right; why disturb them? Most of them will be deaf to the suggestion that trouble will come at some future time. The future does not concern the Congressman of to-day. The primaries of the present, not those of the future, renominate him. Present dangers, not future ones, are those which have influence with him. There is one possible danger, however, which may bring Congress to a realizing sense of the situation. If the revenues of the next two years are not equal to the expenditures, a currency crisis will supervene, even if times are good. The Treasury subsists on its income. If this is not equal to the outgo, the deficiency must come out of the reserve, and, when this begins to decline, the gold will begin to disappear. Then, if not before, there will be a fresh commotion about the currency and a fresh agitation for its amendment.

THE NEW TARIFF AND THE REVENUE.

The Dingley tariff bill is a fresh instance of the recklessness with which the problem of the exchequer is handled by American statesmen. On no point has the party now in power insisted more strenuously than on the need of a substantial surplus revenue. The Republican leaders have not confined their argument to exposition of the general inconvenience of a Treasury deficit; they have reasoned with much force that the currency disturbances of the past few years, the drain on the Government's gold reserve, and the consequent uneasiness in the financial markets, arose directly from the heavy shortage in the revenue. Spokesmen of the majority party have, in fact, not stopped with explanations of what the party ought to do for a surplus revenue, or even with promises of what it would do; they have publicly threatened the party in case it failed to do what was necessary. "The committee," said Senator Aldrich, on May 26, introducing the Senate bill, "believe it to be the imperative duty of Congress to provide in the measure under consideration for a revenue which will certainly meet the requirements of the Government for the next fiscal year. The adoption of a revenue bill which should fail in this purpose, and which should create an additional deficiency in the immediate future, . . . would certainly be fatal to the hopes of future success of any political party responsible for such legislation."

This is strong language; yet, in the face of this warning by the Republican leader of the Senate, Congress has passed a revenue measure from which every trustworthy expert anticipates a deficit. We do not of course include among the expert estimates Mr. Dingley's ridiculous claim that customs revenue, under

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his bill, would increase $113,479,793 over the revenue of 1896. Senator Aldrich, the best authority among the Republicans, has sufficiently punctured that pretended calculation, and has shown conclusively that Mr. Dingley made no allowances for decrease in importations as a result of increased duties. In other words, Mr. Dingley framed a bill to exclude foreign products, and then calmly proceeded to reckon a customs revenue based on precisely the same volume of dutiable imports as came in before the duties were advanced. We may safely leave his absurdities to the mercy of the Republican experts in the Senate.

Mr. Aldrich calculated from the Senate bill, which was very nearly as large a revenue-producer as the Dingley measure, a deficit of $29,175,000 for the current fiscal year. To avert such deficit, he made an urgent plea for a new revenue duty on tea and an internal tax on beer, both taxes to stand only until 1900. With these additional taxes, the yield of which is easy to compute, he estimated a narrow surplus of $2,725,028, and supplemented this estimate with the solemn warning which we have quoted. The Senate immediately rejected all the proposed new revenue taxes, and the conference committee framed the bill without them. Finally, a thorough estimate was made by the Senate experts and the Bureau of Statistics, based, not on the importations of a single year, but on the average of the last six years, and making full allowance for the anticipatory importations before the bill should pass.

This estimate, as revised, figures out $169,000,000 customs revenue for the current fiscal year, or $16,000,000 less than the customs yield for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1897. Now let it be considered that the appropriations made in the last Congress, and approved in the present session, for the same fiscal year, run $14,237,836 over the appropriations for the fiscal year 1897. Let it be noticed, also, that in the fiscal year just closed there was a deficit of $18,623,108, and it is easy to see what Senator Aldrich had in mind in his warning speech of May 26.

It is always possible that a year of sudden trade revival—especially when such revival takes the form of increased demand for European goods—will raise the revenue above conservative estimates. But this is only a contingent possibility, and is therefore a factor which no maker of Government estimates has a right to take into account. Moreover, the whole history of our Treasury is a warning against optimistic estimates. We append a short table showing the successive December estimates of the Treasury for the revenue of the fiscal year then current, and comparing these estimates with actual results. The fiscal year 1897 is omitted, because its estimate, of course, made no account of the abnormal anticipative customs revenue since last February:

Fiscal year.	Estimated.	Actual.
1896	$431,907,407	$409,475,408
1895	424,427,748	390,373,203
1894	430,121,365	372,802,498
1893	463,336,350	461,716,561
1892	433,000,000	425,868,260

It must be kept in mind that, when these estimates were framed, one-half of the twelve months which they covered had already submitted their returns of revenue. When we come to estimates drawn, like those of Mr. Dingley, in advance even of the passage of the revenue bill, the teaching of our history shows even more forcibly how far the wish is father to the thought. On the day when the McKinley tariff bill passed into law in 1890, Senator Aldrich himself declared: "I now estimate the aggregate annual reduction made by the bill as reported from the conference committee, at from forty-two to forty-three millions of dollars." The result showed a reduction of $52,205,620 in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892. On July 19, 1894, the Senate finance bill, whose schedules as then reported were left virtually unchanged in conference, was estimated to insure a customs revenue of $179,251,142. In fact, the customs yield for the twelve months ending June 30, 1895, was only $152,158,617, and even in its second year of operation the yield of the tariff fell $19,000,000 below the Senate estimate.

The action of the present Congress places our Government again in the ridiculous position of a business institution which does not know how to manage its own finances. An individual who estimates his next year's income with excessive optimism, and then deliberately raises his scale of living expenses above even his income estimate, will very soon become a chronic visitor at the pawn-shops and the usurers'. A government which does the same thing cannot escape a similar fate. It is impossible that our government should hold its proper place among self-respecting financial states until it reforms completely its present demoralizing budget system.

THE NORTHERN GOLD FIELDS.

The great gold-finds on the Klondike come at a most awkward time for international or any other kind of bimetallism. Next to good crops and good trade, nothing so depresses true bimetallist lovers of their country and their kind as the discovery of fresh gold deposits. It is such an ugly fact to explain away. Japan's going over to the gold standard may plausibly be accounted for, as it was by Senator Stewart, on the ground that "Japan has been bought up." Russia's leaning towards gold has an obvious connection with Russian tyranny. But when vast new quantities of gold are found, to go into that terrible vacuum in the currency which nothing but silver was available to fill, it begins to look as if not only bankers and creditor-nations and the powers of darkness, but Providence also, were on the side of the gold-bugs.

The alleged scarcity, with diminishing production, of gold has been the leading article in the creed of honest bimetallism. For a time it could assert high geological authority in its support. The distinguished Austrian geologist, Prof. Suess, elaborately proved, only a few years ago, that the gold supplies of the earth were gradually giving out, and that no fresh finds of any consequence could be expected. This was shortly before the tremendous increase in the output of South African gold, which of itself was a shattering blow to the bimetallic argument. Now come these undoubtedly rich discoveries in this far-off corner. If they yield, as estimated, $10,000,000 a year in gold, there alone we should have an addition to the currency half as great as that made by the Sherman law of blessed memory—and they would be full-weight dollars, too, none of your fifty-cent shame-faced token-dollars.

As we say, all this is most ill-timed for international bimetallism. Senator Wolcott's smile, we venture to say, narrows perceptibly as he reads the telegrams in the London papers giving an account of the Klondike gold fields. This thing is playing scandalously into Lord Salisbury's hand. It was bad enough before. The trade and Treasury returns in England for the first quarter of the fiscal year were showing a degree of prosperity most embarrassing to bimetallic logic. The estimates of the Chancellor of the Exchequer had been surpassed by more than $6,000,000. Then there was the unpleasant news from America of good crops and high prices for them. With Nebraska and Kansas farmers paying off their mortgages by the million, how could international bimetallism be expected to make headway? When on top of all this came the authentic accounts of the great discoveries of gold on the tributaries of the Yukon, Senator Wolcott must have been tempted to exclaim with the psalmist, "Lord, how are they increased that trouble me!"

This financial and political aspect of the question is doubtless the most important and instructive for us; but it has another highly suggestive side. These gold finds are in British territory. The Klondike flows into the Yukon near the Alaskan boundary, and the gold has been discovered mainly along its course in the Northwest Territory. Yet the successful miners, the men who come home with tales of fabulous wealth attained in a few weeks, are largely American citizens. That is to say, they are "aliens," "foreign devils," allowed to go freely into British territory and

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carry away its chief treasure without let or hindrance. Imagine the case reversed. Imagine the gold fields on our side of the Alaskan border, and Englishmen swarming in to despoil us. What shrieks to high heaven and appeals to Congress there would be! We should have laws in a twinkling to make all alien miners pay nine-tenths of their findings into our Treasury. We should tax them heavily to get into the territory, and not let them get out without paying the uttermost farthing. What some of our States have done in the way of legislation to make aliens smart for lending us capital and developing our resources, fairly indicates what we would do in the case supposed. This stupid English indifference to the nationality of the man extracting wealth from English soil would never be the policy of a wide-awake and paternal and strictly look-out-for-number-one American Government.

The incident throws light on the terrible "land-grabbing" propensity of England. She grabs everywhere, but she throws what she grabs open to all the world. She is well known to grab with peculiar fury when it is a question of getting a bit of gold-bearing land; that always drives her frantic. But, as the Klondike gold-finds show, she lets foreigners come and help themselves to the gold after she has grabbed it. She polices the territory acquired; she makes life and property safe there; she establishes courts; she fosters education and religion; but she gives Frenchmen, Germans, Italians, or even her dearest foes, Americans, the same rights there as Englishmen. This is a policy of incredible silliness, according to American standards. It might be justified on the theory that law and international policy are intended to promote trade and industry, and make human liberty and happiness as secure as possible; but we know that theory to be entirely mistaken. Laws exist for the purpose of discriminating against foreigners, and causing misery in foreign cities, as McKinley boasted that his tariff had done. International relations are to be so managed that every nation's hand will be against its fellow. This being the American conception, and, therefore, the true conception, the obsoleteness, the isolation, the supreme folly of the English policy are clearly proved—and that, of course, is the main thing.

OUR NATIONAL UNIVERSITY.

The address at the opening of the Clark University summer school in Worcester, Mass., the other day was delivered by Senator Hoar, who improved the occasion to make a plea for the establishment of a new educational institution in America. He recalled the fact that, in his last conversation with Agassiz, the great naturalist expressed his surprise that there was no institution in this country where a competent knowledge of international law or of the history or methods of international diplomacy was taught, and the Senator said that he supposed this to be as true now as it was then. "Where," he asked, "is an American legislator or statesman to learn anything of the mechanism of government as it exists in other countries, or, indeed, of a great deal of it as it exists in his own?"

Mr. Hoar referred to the existence of schools abroad, where what, for want of a better name, is called comparative politics is taught, which he supposed to supply in some measure this want to their pupils, and insisted that "we need such an institution in America." He proceeded thus to outline what he had in mind:

> "The cost of its foundation cannot be great. We have men who have large training in our own public life, such men as Senator Allison, or Senator Hale, or Senator Cockrell, or Senator Gorman, who might easily fit themselves to conduct such an institution. A chair in such a university would be an object of high ambition for the most eminent of our statesmen, when he should withdraw from active political life. Such a school established in America would, in my opinion, attract pupils from the whole civilized world. It would be a valuable instructor to the nations south of us, who are growing so rapidly in the art of self-government and taking their honored place in the great family of republics. Europe in such a school would have much to teach, and much also to learn."

It would be difficult to imagine a more curious illustration of blindness to existing conditions than is afforded by these remarks of Mr. Hoar. The Massachusetts Senator is airing theories which would have been timely when our government was established, but which are nothing short of absurd when brought out in 1897. The "fathers of the republic" believed that there was a science of government, that trained statesmen were requisite to its successful administration, that a new nation had much to learn both from the past and from its contemporaries in other parts of the world. The "mechanism of government," as they conceived of it, was to be learned only by careful study of our own Constitution and of the methods pursued in other nations; and a national university, where instruction of this sort should be given, would have been an institution in keeping with the times in which they lived.

Such an institution was never established, and yet we have to-day a national university in which "comparative politics" is taught. It has its seat at Washington. Its head—who is sometimes little more than a figurehead—lives in the White House. The professors give instruction in the capitol. There are branches in Harrisburg, Albany, Springfield, and dozens of other State capitals. It is in intimate association with the city halls of hundreds of municipalities. Its professors are men of the ripest knowledge and fullest experience in the science to which they have devoted themselves. While they often manifest a disposition to perform some of their experiments secretly, their work for the most part must come to the knowledge of the people. This great university, from day to day and week to week, is teaching the "mechanism of government" by object-lessons which command universal attention. No endowment for any new establishment is required, nor need Senator Gorman, or any other of "the most eminent of our statesmen," wait until he withdraws from active political life for a chance to give instruction.

Senator Hoar lamented the fact that "we encounter the trained servants of England and Germany and France, even of Turkey, with an improvised diplomacy," and that "we are expected to do in a hurry, with untrained instruments, that which foreign countries do at leisure, with the instrumentality of experienced servants, who have the best training the world can give." This is one of the defects that he would have supplied by the institution for theoretical instruction which he wants to have established. But of what use would it be to train men laboriously in the methods of diplomacy followed by the rest of the world, when the faculty of our real national university teach their pupils that this sort of thing is "played out," and that the man who never paid any attention to our foreign relations is the man best fitted to conduct them?

Senator Hoar maintained that "we want to know, for our own constant instruction and profit, in regard to every civilized nation," a long list of things which he specified, "in order that we may have for convenient reference and instruction the particulars of the legislative, executive, and judicial mechanism of all the governments of the world." But where would be the use of all this when our real national university has for its motto, "What do we care for abroad?"

"The method of enacting laws" is one of the subjects which Mr. Hoar would have Senator Gorman and other of "our most eminent statesmen," after their retirement, teach from chairs in his new institution. But they are teaching this subject a thousand times more effectively now, as professors in our real national university. What need is there for lectures as to how statesmen shall construct a tariff law for the benefit of a great nation when Jones of Nevada is showing the country the real way in which such a measure is framed by the member of the finance committee who holds the balance of power, and when Burrows of Michigan is standing out successfully for an extra duty of $1 a thousand on white pine, in order that a few rich lumbermen may pocket several million dollars a year more than they would get at the lower rate?

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Senator Hoar's appeal for a new institution to teach "comparative politics" is an insult to that real national university in which such great authorities on the science of government as Gorman and Platt and Quay are the chief teachers. Moreover, his idea of an institution where the statesman emeritus gives instruction is absurd. It is only the statesman in active service who can teach effectively, because only he knows the methods of government which prevail at any given time. The retired statesman is retired because he could not "keep up with the procession." It is the "up-to-date" politician alone who understands and can expound the "mechanism of government." Our real national university, as now conducted, covers the whole field.

MADAME GEOFFRIN.—II.

PARIS, July 14, 1897.

Madame Geoffrin's salon became a centre of attraction for distinguished foreigners who lived for a while in Paris. Among them may be cited Lady Hervey, the friend of Horace Walpole, and Walpole himself. Lady Hervey gives a good portrait of Madame Geoffrin in a letter to Hume, in January, 1764. (It figures in the 'Letters of Eminent Persons Addressed to D. Hume,' 1849.) Hume himself, who was for a time Secretary of the British Embassy in Paris, became a friend and remained, after his return to England, a correspondent of Madame Geoffrin, who calls him familiarly "gros drôle" in her letters. Walpole's enthusiasm for Madame Geoffrin was of short duration; he writes to his friend Conway that he speedily became disgusted with a house where he met all the beaux-esprits and the savants, whom he found impertinent and dogmatic. It is probable that Madame du Deffand helped to change the feelings of Walpole; the two ladies were rivals, and Walpole had too much taste and refinement not to appreciate the superiority of Madame du Deffand to Madame Geoffrin. Walpole preferred what would be called nowadays the pessimism of Madame du Deffand to the robust optimism of Madame Geoffrin, and her candid admiration for all crowned heads—Russian, Austrian, or Polish.

Madame Geoffrin was a good friend, but she had singular theories about friendship. The Abbé Galiani, who had become quite a Parisian, said of her: "Madame Geoffrin has a mania for detesting unfortunate people, as she will not be made unhappy by the sight of other people's misfortunes. This arises from a fine cause: she is sensitive, she is old, she is in good health; she wishes to preserve her health and her quiet. As soon as she learns that I am happy, she will love me *à la folie*." She says of herself in a letter: "As for me, I only try to put my sensibility to sleep." Her reign in her own salon and in her circle of friends was very despotic. She had a certain way at her own table of saying, "Voilà qui est bien," which everybody understood, and which meant that she found that a discussion or a story had lasted long enough, and that she wished it to stop. One day the young Count de Coigny, at supper, entered upon a long story devoid of interest; Madame Geoffrin gave signs of impatience, and, wishing to make a diversion, asked him to carve a chicken. Her pains were lost, for he continued his monologue while drawing from his pocket a knife no longer than a penknife. This time Madame Geoffrin lost her patience. "Monsieur le Comte," said she, with her dry, distinct voice, "to succeed in this country, people must have long knives and short stories."

Madame Geoffrin seems to have been an excellent business woman. The archives of the famous glass manufacture of Saint-Gobain tell us that in 1757 the society passed through a difficult crisis, through the fault of the director. One of the partners, M. Gombault, comes one day in great trouble of mind to Madame Geoffrin. "Madame," he says, as soon as he sees her, "all is lost." Madame Geoffrin coolly opens a window on the street. "Why, sir, if all is lost, let us throw ourselves out of the window." And, as M. Gombault did not seem inclined to do so, "then," she continued, "let us dismiss the charlatans and play the cards you have. Take the best man you have, M. Deslandes." M. Gombault was struck with the advice; he appointed M. Deslandes director, and in a short time the manufacture became very prosperous.

Madame Geoffrin married her daughter to the Marquis de la Ferté-Imbault, a descendant of Marshal d'Étampes; the contract was signed on the 18th of February, 1733. The bride received a dower of twenty thousand francs a year. Madame Geoffrin engaged herself besides to "lodge and feed husband and wife, and the children to be born, as well as a valet, a maid, a coachman, and four lackeys, to pay the wages of the domestics, and to clothe them, to provide a stable for two horses." The reunion in the same house was of short duration; a year after the marriage, La Ferté was obliged to make a campaign in Italy; he came back in a consumptive condition, and died on the 26th of March, 1737, leaving a little girl seven months old. Madame de la Ferté became a widow at the age of twenty-two. She resolved to remain in her mother's house, but she had an apartment to herself. They were hardly made to live together. Walpole once saluted Madame Geoffrin with the words, "Oh, Common Sense, be seated!" Madame de la Ferté was virtuous, well behaved, but odd, eccentric, excitable. She despised the Philosophers, friends of her mother, and preferred the *gens de cour;* she moved in the highest society, and was extremely worldly. She spent the winter in Paris, and in summer made visits from château to château, to the Maurepas at Pontchartrain, the Luynes at Dampierre. She excited in the old King Stanislas Leszczynski a great friendship, and paid him a visit at Lunéville, in company with Mademoiselle de la Roche-sur-Yon, an aunt of the Prince de Conti. The King once spoke to her of his wife, who had died a year before, and of his daughter, Marie Leszczynska, the Queen of France. "They certainly were," he said, "the two most tiresome persons I ever met." He excused Louis XV. for having looked for some distraction outside of his family circle. In the Appendix to M. de Ségur's volume there are "Anecdotes of the Reign of Louis XV., from a Manuscript of Madame de la Ferté," which are partly inspired by the confidences of the old King Stanislas. Madame de la Ferté had also among her friends the Abbé de Bernis, who became Cardinal de Bernis, a favorite of Madame de Pompadour and a minister.

Madame Geoffrin counted among the persons with whom she was in correspondence Kaunitz, the Austrian Prime Minister; she was acquainted with Gustavus III., King of Sweden. The archives of St. Petersburg preserve the letters addressed to her by the Empress Catherine of Russia; her letters to the Empress have so far never been found. This correspondence, very active for a time, ceased when Madame Geoffrin imprudently allowed Rulhière to read his 'Anecdotes on the Revolution in Russia' in her salon. Rulhière was secretary to the Baron de Breteuil, Minister of France at St. Petersburg, at the time when Catherine had become Empress, and he was able to give details on the drama of July, 1762. Catherine was informed of this reading by several persons, and did not forgive Madame Geoffrin.

The great event in Mme. Geoffrin's life was her connection with Stanislas Auguste Poniatowski. She had previously known his father. The young Prince brought her a letter of recommendation when he made his first visit to Paris. He was twenty-one years old and handsome. Mme. Geoffrin undertook to protect him from the dangers of Paris; he called her Mamma, and conceived for her a truly filial affection. After his return to Poland, he was appointed, at the age of twenty-five, Ambassador to St. Petersburg, and inspired the Grand Duchess Catherine with a violent passion; she succeeded in placing him afterwards on the throne of Poland. Immediately upon his accession (September 9, 1764), he announced the news to Mme. Geoffrin: "Mamma, your son is King." There is another version: "My dear Mamma, I am King; don't scold me." Mme. Geoffrin was quite intoxicated by this success of her "adopted son." She writes the most hyperbolic letters, she sees in Stanislas a new Henri IV., a new Sully. "My dear son, my dear King, my dear Stanislas Auguste, I adore and embrace you. . . . I really think that I should die with joy if I embraced you. My son, my King! where is the person who can speak thus? I alone!" She began to take an ardent interest in the affairs of Poland. It was no longer enough for her to rule in a little court of artists and writers. In France, she was well aware, her bourgeois condition did not allow her to take any part in the affairs of state. Her attempts in politics with Catherine of Russia had not been successful. Could she not hope to have some influence with a young prince of only thirty years, whom she had known and formed, who had confided everything to her, who called her his mother?

The Duke de Choiseul had not seen without displeasure the election of Stanislas Auguste, which had been accomplished through the combined influences of the cabinets of Berlin and St. Petersburg. The Dauphine of France, Marie Josèphe de Saxe, was the daughter of Augustus III., who had been King of Poland before Stanislas, and the cabinet of Versailles considered the new election a defeat for the house of Saxony, with which it was allied. The new king invited Madame Geoffrin to come to Poland, and, after some hesitation, she determined to make a journey which at that time was not an easy one. Shall she go through Berlin or through Vienna? It becomes an important question. Grimm recommends Berlin, where she will be received with open arms by the Great Frederick, but she does not approve of Frederick. She sees in him "neither a

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virtuous nor a great man. . . . In fifty years people will no longer speak of him"—a prediction which can be placed beside Madame de Sévigné's prediction on the subject of Racine: "Le goût en passera, comme du café." She herself decided in favor of Vienna. She started on May 21, 1766, in a great berlin, which had been planned and prepared for a whole year. In Vienna she received many attentions from Kaunitz, and was presented to Maria-Theresa at Schönbrunn, where she saw and admired the Archduchess Marie-Antoinette, who was twelve years old.

The visit to Warsaw did not end as well as it began. The King was full of attentions and as affectionate as in past times; but when Madame Geoffrin undertook to meddle with the politics of the country and to give advice, she soon met with opposition on all sides, and was made to understand that she was but a foreigner. She was, besides, very painfully impressed by the real barbarism, which was ill concealed by a glittering and meddlesome aristocracy, by the condition of the people, of the peasants, who were still in a state of slavery. Altogether, the atmosphere of Poland was not the atmosphere of civilized Paris. We know little or nothing of what really passed between the King and her. The shell of friendship was not broken; they both showed much discretion; but the fact is that, after a sojourn of only three months, Madame Geoffrin returned to France, and that all her friends were struck by the uncontrollable joy she showed on finding herself again among her natural surroundings. Her dream of ambition, if she had had any, was gone, and for ever; she lived now only for her friends and for her daughter. She had an apoplectic stroke in 1776, recovered, and lived about a year more; a new crisis, on the 6th of October, 1777, ended her life. She was buried at St. Roch, in the early morning, without any pomp. She left her fortune to her daughter and a number of legacies to her friends—the most important to D'Alembert, Thomas, and the Abbé Morellet.

THE SCHOOLS OF ARCHÆOLOGY AT ATHENS.—III.

THE AMERICAN SCHOOL OF CLASSICAL STUDIES.*

In April, 1879, certain scholars who were interested in the promotion of the study of classical archæology in America, issued a circular in which announcement was made of a proposition to establish a society for the purpose of furthering and directing archæological investigation and research. The circular also set forth in general terms the objects contemplated and the methods of procedure suggested by the promoters of the undertaking. The proposed institution was to promote and direct archæological investigation and research in a variety of ways: by sending out expeditions for special investigations, by aiding the efforts of independent explorers, by the publication of reports of the results of the expeditions which the Institute might undertake or promote, and by any other means which might from time to time appear desirable. The institution thus called into being was styled the Archæological Institute of America. Its first annual report (Cambridge, 1880) contained important papers by Lewis H. Morgan, W. J. Stillman, and J. T. Clarke. At that time—only seventeen years ago—no instruction was given in archæology at any American university or college; and as one of the objects of the Institute was to promote that study, it suggested the establishment of scholarships of archæology at Harvard, Yale, Columbia, and elsewhere—scholarships similar to the then recent travelling studentship in archæology which was given by Exeter College, Oxford, to W. M. Ramsay, and has brought honor to that ancient university and renown to its holder. This appeal was not wholly unheeded by our universities, and, thanks to it, a number of young men have been enabled to study at the then unborn American School at Athens, to the lasting gain of classical scholarship in America.

But the American School at Athens, if yet unborn, was certainly *in petto*, for in the very first annual report of the Institute we read, among other things:

"France and Germany have their schools at Athens, where young scholars devote themselves, under the guidance of eminent masters, to studies and research in archæology. The results that have followed from this training have been excellent; and it is greatly to be desired, for the sake of American scholarship, that a similar American school may before long enter into honorable rivalry with those already established."

The idea of an American School at Athens, thus publicly suggested for the first time, was not to be a barren one, nor the process of incubation long. The time was ripe therefor, and the promoters of the scheme were destined to see their ambition fulfilled, at least in part, sooner than they had expected, for at the annual meeting on May 21, 1881, a committee, of which John Williams White was chairman, was appointed to devise a plan for the creation at Athens of an American School of Classical Literature, Art, and Antiquities. This committee met on June 22, 1881, and discussed plans; progress was made, but no definite decision was reached on that occasion. At another meeting, held on November 5, 1881, it was felt that, under existing circumstances, it would not be wise to compel the students to pursue exclusively archæological studies at Athens; it was therefore determined to suggest, as the name of the proposed institution, "The American School of Classical Studies at Athens." Accordingly, as the name indicates, a student of the School may study anything that appertains to Greek linguistics, history, architecture, archæology, or antiquities. It was further suggested that the School should be established under the auspices of some of the leading universities and colleges of America, each of which was to agree to pay $250 annually for the support of the School. The money thus raised was to be applied to the rent of a suitable house, to the gradual purchase of a library, and to the general running expenses. The question of the directing head of the School presented difficulties: archæologists, properly speaking, were few, and the Director, whether archæologist or not, could not live without a salary. It was therefore further suggested that the directorship be made an annual appointment, and that the contributing colleges be requested in turn to lend one of their professors to serve as annual Director. This of course meant that his salary, or a large portion of it, should be continued to him by his college during his year of residence at Athens. These suggestions of the committee were adopted by the Archæological Institute of America, and a Director for the first year was chosen in the person of W. W. Goodwin, who opened the School on October 2, 1882, in a house built for a former Prime Minister of Greece. The house not only was large enough to accommodate the Director's family, but had besides a spacious room which was originally intended as a state ball-room, and was as though specially designed for the purposes of the School library.

With the money at the disposal of the Director the house was furnished, and the library was begun with 400 well-chosen books. Mr. Goodwin found himself the guide of eight young men—graduates in American or German universities—each of whom pursued throughout the year some definite subject of study that required considerable research and length of time for its elaboration. The results of these studies were embodied in papers many of which were deemed worthy of publication in the first volume of the Papers of the School. Besides this, at the weekly meetings of the School, papers were read by the Director, or by one of the students, the object being to discuss some important subject of Athenian topography or archæology, even though it were well known, rather than to try to write papers on subjects never before discussed. At still other weekly meetings the Director lectured on the "Agamemnon" of Æschylus and on certain parts of the history of Thucydides. Numerous excursions were made to historic sites by the members of the School, partly under the guidance of the Director, and partly in the shape of tours through distant parts of Greece, the students being their own guides.

At the close of the first year all who had been connected with the School knew that it had been successful beyond the expectations of its friends, and were convinced that it had before it a brilliant future in the history of classical education in America. To be sure, no one could fail to see that the plan of sending out an annual Director was not an ideal one as a permanent policy, seeing that the Director had to retire at the very moment when he had begun to get matters well in hand. Indeed, at the start it was announced repeatedly that the annual directorship was merely a temporary makeshift; no one ever contemplated the suicidal policy of handing over every year the management of the institution to a man who was as much a learner as any of his students; who, in the nature of the case, must lack not only that all-important local and special knowledge, but also the knowledge of the ways and means of archæological study and of conserving the time of the students, so that their efforts might be expended to the best advantage.

The annual directorship was to remain in force until the time should come when the success of the School might justify its friends in making an appeal to the public for a permanent endowment in order to the establishment of a permanent directorship. Indeed, at the meeting of the Managing Committee on November 16, 1883, a committee was appointed to report at the next regular meeting a detailed scheme for securing a permanent fund and to nominate prominent men in the chief cities of the country as a permanent committee, whose duty it should be to carry out the scheme

*The facts contained in this article have been taken from the Annual Reports of the School.

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suggested by the provisional committee, and to appoint trustees to receive, hold in trust, invest, and disburse the funds collected for purposes of the School.

This provisional committee twice brought in a report that in their opinion the time for the proposed changes had not yet come; and consequently for the first six years of its existence the fortunes of the School were guided by directors sent out under an annual appointment. But in the meantime friends of archæology in Great Britain had secured from the Greek Government the gift of a building-site, and had actually built a house upon it, though as yet they had neither students, nor Director, nor money wherewith to pay the Director's salary. This fact stirred to action the friends of the School in America, and at the meeting of the committee on May 16, 1884, the question of a permanent home at Athens for the American School was discussed at length, with the final result that Mr. Tricoupis, then Prime Minister of Greece, announced that Greece, in her poverty, was ready to give our School a building-site of the value of $13,500. This more than generous gift naturally awakened enthusiasm at home, and on October 31, 1885, an appeal was made to the friends of classical learning in America for $25,000 wherewith to build for the School a worthy home in Athens. Boston responded to the call with a generous $19,000, and New York gave the rest, the sum total subscribed being $26,553.22. Trustees were appointed to hold the property of the School, and these trustees subsequently secured articles of incorporation under the laws of Massachusetts. The cost of the building was greatly diminished in various ways: Prof. W. R. Ware made the plans and the estimate of the cost of construction, thus giving of his time and energy; Mr. Trowbridge directed the erection of the building. But, besides this, the cost was diminished by direct gifts from American manufacturing houses. Thus, the doors, windows, flooring, bookcases, the entire iron staircase, the hardware for the entire house, a complete set of plumbing fittings, mantelpieces, decorative panels, grates, and fireplaces were given outright by a number of generous firms whose names cannot be mentioned here for want of space. Even the Florio-Rubattino and the Cunard steamship companies gave special rates for freight. Thanks to all these agencies, the corner-stone of the building could be laid on March 12, 1887, and the School now occupies a magnificent home, "the only completely fire-proof building in Greece," "a worthy and enduring monument of the interest in Greek studies which is felt in America, and the visible evidence of our desire that no means shall be lacking for their successful promotion."

As has been said, the supporters of the School had all along intended that the management of the School should ultimately be under the direction of a permanent head, and so, on November 19, 1886, the committee took two important steps: they "determined that an organized effort should be made to secure for the School a permanent endowment of $100,000," and they invited Dr. Charles Waldstein of New York, then reader of archæology in the University of Cambridge, England, "to become the permanent Director of the School when the endowment should be secured," with the expectation that he would take charge of the School in the autumn of 1888. This latter expectation was realized, though to this day the entire sum needed for the permanent endowment has not been secured. But with the advent of the permanent Director the annual directorship did not cease; it had been found to be both unique and wise. The spectacle of a coterie of universities and colleges working together for a common end had never been witnessed before; these institutions still contributed to the support of the School, and it was but right that they should be allowed to continue to send out their professors for an educational residence in Athens.

The institution of the annual Director had never been an unmitigated evil; indeed, it had been productive of great good, for, as the aim of our School was not so much distinguished achievements as it was to arouse in American colleges a genuine interest in classical archæology in general, no better plan could have been devised than that of giving the professors of Greek in our leading colleges the untold advantage of a year's residence in Greece, whence they could not fail to return burning with enthusiasm for everything relating to Greek and Greece. Perhaps their knowledge of archæology was below par, but for all that their year in Greece made them infinitely better teachers of Greek; they had become more capable of guiding their own students not only in archæology, but in Greek literature as well, and they have ever been ready to use all their influence to send enthusiastic and well-equipped young men as students to the School at Athens. The influence of returned directors in creating an interest in archæology in America has been wonderful, as any one who has been watching archæological matters for the last fifteen years can easily see. Indeed, the feature of the annual directorship has been watched by others than Americans, by the Germans themselves. Prof. Conze, the head of the German Archæological Institute, told the writer that a study of our School had so convinced him of the immense importance of the feature in question, that he hoped to see a professor sent out annually from German universities to the German Schools at Rome and Athens.

Thus, at the end of the first six years of its existence, the School could occupy its own large and commodious building, which from first to last cost $30,000, exclusive of the ground. It had a most useful library of well-chosen books, besides scientific and photographic instruments. It had conducted excavations at Thoricus, Sicyon, and Icaria; it had published four volumes of papers, which had been accepted by the scholars of Europe and America as valuable additions to our knowledge of antiquity. But at this juncture trouble arose in regard to the permanent directorship. The friends of the School had failed to secure a permanent endowment, that having been the condition on which Dr. Waldstein had accepted the directorship. His undivided services, therefore, could not be secured, but the Managing Committee effected a temporary compromise by which Dr. Waldstein agreed to give his active services to the School during the months of December and January of each year. Under these circumstances the annual Director was an important factor in the successful management of the School, inasmuch as he was on the ground continuously, during both the absence and the presence of the Director; their work was mutually complementary. This state of affairs lasted for four years. But in November, 1891, pursuant to a resolution adopted in May of the same year, to the effect that after October 1, 1892, the School should have a permanent officer in residence at Athens during the entire school year, from October 1 to June 1, the committee elected Prof. F. B. Tarbell to be the chief executive of the School, with the title of Secretary, for a term of five years, beginning on October 1, 1892. After one year's service, Mr. Tarbell resigned, to accept a professorship in the University of Chicago; he was succeeded by the present Director, R. B. Richardson. At the same time, Dr. Waldstein was elected professor of ancient art. The feature of the annual directorship was retained, with a change of title, Prof. J. R. Wheeler being the first incumbent of the "Professorship of the Greek Language and Literature." His duties were confined to the department of instruction, for henceforth the responsibility and care of administration fell upon the shoulders of the permanent Director.

The value of the School property in Athens is about $40,000. The amount already secured towards a permanent endowment is something more than $50,000, $100,000 being the minimum amount needed. Up to date there have been seventeen directors and annual professors of the School, representing thirteen universities and colleges. The number of students who have been connected with the School is seventy-eight. These students have won their degrees in thirty-seven different American institutions. Of this number forty-six have received higher degrees; twenty-three have received the degree of Ph.D. from American universities and nine from European universities. Fifty-four are now teachers, of whom thirty-one have the rank of professor. These teachers are distributed among twenty-three different States, and each one of them is an infectious centre of enthusiasm for Greek and Greece. The Managing Committee numbers thirty-eight men, representing twenty-five of the leading universities and colleges of America.

After a young man who proposes to make the teaching of Greek his business in life has received the book-learning necessary for his profession, no better preparation for enthusiastic and effective work can be conceived of than a residence of one or two years at the School at Athens. It is hardly worth while to point out how and why such a sojourn must needs be helpful and beneficial to every student of the classics. The intellectual possibilities in the verification and vivification of history, in the study of art and sculpture, of architecture, of vases and vase-pictures, of epigraphy, of geography, of language, of folk-lore, etc., are infinite. But the advantages are not merely intellectual: the influence on the imagination must not be lost sight of, for no true student of the past of Greece can breathe the air which *they* breathed, can see the sites made famous by *their* splendid achievements in behalf of all mankind, can live among the monuments which *those* "immortal men erected to mortal gods," can learn "the secrets of their architecture," can "study geography and history at once by exploring" the battlefields of Greece, by inspecting "her lines of communication through her mountain passes and the sites of her famous cities," and not be better, purer, larger, healthier therefor. In Greece the student will realize as he could never do so well elsewhere how immense is

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the debt *we* owe to Greece. Who can look upon the mountain majesty of Parnassus or the softer charm of Helicon, with its Hippokrene and Valley of the Muses, and not understand why the Greeks were poets and artists and lovers of all things beautiful, whether intellectual or physical? Physical geography will tell him at Thebes why it was that her climate was a poor one for brains; at Sparta he will see with his eyes why no walls were needed round the martial city, and he "will understand better the discipline of Lycurgus, with its iron money and its black broth, and the hardihood of Leonidas and the men of Thermopylae."

I cannot close without mentioning another matter that just now lies close to the hearts and consciences of American scholars. It is true that our School at Athens has conducted excavations at a number of places, and has done distinguished work at the Heræum, but it has always been hampered by the lack of money wherewith to do thorough-going, clean pieces of excavating work; and such alone are satisfactory, because they alone can meet the demands of the rigid science of to-day. Slovenly, imperfect, or partial excavations may, indeed, produce valuable results for the science of antiquity, but they do not tell the whole tale, and they may leave precisely the most important things undiscovered, and thereby do infinite harm in the way of preventing other persons, better equipped with money, from undertaking excavations at places from which, as they have a right to feel, the cream has been skimmed by the first excavators. This fear, however, does not always deter men, as may be seen from the case of Thoricus, for, after we had finished our excavations there, others stepped into the breach and made most important discoveries; at Eretria, too, we excavated, with important results, and yet that much is still to be done there is quite clear from the fact that surreptitious digging was going on there last October, and, a little later on, the discovery of a bronze statue by the peasants of Eretria was reported in the Athenian newspapers. We have dug at Platæa, and yet it takes a sharp eye and considerable exertion to discover those same diggings, for Platæa is still virgin soil for the excavator, and the topographical problems of the great battle are still unsolved. The best excavating we have done was that by Dr. Waldstein at the Heræum. We have now undertaken to excavate Corinth. It is a vast, almost an alarming, enterprise, and our honor is at stake—not merely the honor of our School, but the good name and fame of America as well; we *must* do a clean piece of work at Corinth, or else be ranked as incompetent sciolists. Sneers have been uttered at Athens within my hearing to the effect that after we had done playing at excavating Corinth, somebody else would have to step in and excavate the site. We *must* prove that they are ill-founded. To prove our contention, avoid the shame, and bring honor to the American name, we need a pile of money. We have already dug a series of trenches at Corinth, enough to show the vastness of the work we have undertaken to do. We know that ancient Corinth covers a great area, and that it lies deeply buried beneath the soil, the depth of superincumbent earth varying from twenty feet or less to nearly forty feet, it may be. We must buy the site and excavate it remorselessly, and *to a finish*. No trenches, no mere series of trenches, will avail, for trenches have the persistent habit of just missing the most important matters; the entire soil must be removed to a distance from the ancient site, and railways must be built for the purpose; the work must not be done by piecemeal, but consecutively; a corps of archæologists, engineers, and architects must be on the ground continuously, in order to carry on the work with vigor during all the seasons that are available for work. Now that we have put our hand to the plough, we dare not turn back.

There are thousands on thousands of Americans who could give the entire sum needed and never miss it. It is an easy way, too, for a man, or for men, to gain more than ephemeral fame, and, besides the fame, they will gain the undying gratitude of thousands of scholars not only in America, but throughout the whole enlightened world. And while generous-hearted Americans of wealth are putting their hands in their pockets for the excavation of Corinth, let them not forget the American School at Athens; let them go just a little deeper and give something considerable to the School itself, that its permanent endowment may be completed.

J. R. S. Sterrett.

Correspondence.

SOUND-MONEY DEMOCRACY IN MICHIGAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of July 22, speaking of the Louisville Democratic Convention, you refer to the result of the Sound-Money Democratic vote in Michigan at the recent April election, and say "that a few men on the State committee, contrary to the advice of the party leaders, decided to make a separate nomination for Judge of the Supreme Court merely to keep up the appearance of an organization." The error of this statement may not be important, but it is nevertheless considerable. The committee certainly favored making a nomination, though it did not decide to make one, but called a mass convention at Grand Rapids to consider the propriety of nominating a full State ticket—a Justice of the Supreme Court and two Regents of the University. For some days before the meeting of that convention free-silver organs argued against the propriety of its making any nominations, and, before the hour fixed for the meeting of the convention, it was discovered that some delegates doubted the propriety of proceeding to a nomination. An informal meeting of as many of the delegates as could be assembled was held early on the morning of the day the convention met, at which there was a free discussion of the question, resulting in a nearly unanimous determination to nominate a full ticket—so nearly so, that when the convention assembled it proceeded to make its nominations as if the question of not doing so had never been raised.

The vote polled was hardly a surprise to the Sound-Money Democrats, though wholly unexpected by the silverites and not overpleasing or assuring to the Republicans. Not the slightest effort was made to get out the Democratic vote, and it is believed by those in position to judge correctly that the Sound-Money Democratic vote for McKinley was nearly double the vote polled at the April election for the real Democratic ticket.

One feature of that vote has not received the attention its importance justifies. For two months (or more, perhaps) before the election last fall, noon Sound-Money Democratic meetings were held daily in Detroit, and were largely attended. They seem to have produced but little effect on the result of that election, but this spring, Yaple, the Silver candidate for Justice, received in Detroit a vote of only 7,960, while Foote, the Sound-Money Democratic candidate, received 6,864. Nor was this vote peculiar to these candidates. It clearly appeared that the midsummer education of the voters was not lost, though under the pressure of strong fear of Bryanism, the voters did violence to their feelings upon other questions and voted for McKinley; while at the April election they felt free to vote in accordance with their views as Sound-Money Democrats, nearly as much opposed to McKinleyism as to Bryanism. F.

Saginaw, Mich., July 23, 1897.

THE PARTY AND THE NAME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: With many other readers of the *Nation* I feel a warm sympathy for the principles outlined in your article suggesting issues without a party. The country surely and sorely needs sound currency, sound civil service, and sound tariff legislation. By "sound" I take it that we mean something conceived in sincerity and carried out honestly and rationally.

Cannot some one offer a name around which "the new party" may crystallize? "National Democrats" is a worthy name, but would it not be better to find a title free from either of the old party names? Human prejudice (and particularly political prejudice) is influenced often by apparently trivial things. Perhaps a happy name would do much to forward the success of the principles we consider so vital.

Respectfully yours,

Warren French Sheldon.

Auburn, Maine, July 20, 1897.

HATRED OF ENGLAND.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Many reasons have been given to explain the dislike and prejudice which some Americans have against England and Englishmen, and some of the explanations given have been quite complicated and ingenious. Now I, an Englishman, have lived for two years in this country, during which time I have dispassionately and patiently studied this dislike and prejudice, and have at length discovered its cause, which is very simple and commonplace, and is all summed up in one little word, and that word is ENVY.—Yours truly, P. J. J.

Chicago, July 19, 1897.

[A longer residence will, we are sure, convince our correspondent that Americans are right in discerning more causes than one for the hatred in question. That the jealousy of rivalry enters in, there can be no doubt.—Ed. Nation.]

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WOMEN STUDENTS WELCOMED AT MARBURG.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following extract from a letter addressed to me by Prof. W. Vietor, in Marburg, under date of July 1, may be of interest to your readers, who, like myself, were agreeably surprised by Miss Anna Maude Bowen's article in your issue of July 1:

"Dem Besuch der Vorlesungen an unserer Universität durch Damen steht von Seiten der Universität Nichts im Wege sofern die Betreffenden genügende Vorbildung nachweisen. Ich selbst, wie die meisten Professoren der Fakultät, lasse Damen sehr gern als Hörerinnen zu und würde mich freuen Miss —— als solche zu Anfang des Wintersemesters hier begrüssen zu können. Seit dem Sommer 1895 besuchen Damen thatsächlich hier Vorlesungen. Die *erste*, Fräulein —— aus ——, kam durch *mich* hierher und hörte bei *mir*, worauf ich mir, wie Sie sehen, etwas einbilde." Henry Senger.

University of California, July 15, 1897.

A PROFESSOR OF THE CLASSICS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: A college in which the writer is interested has been engaged for a series of months in the quest for a professor of classics. During the canvass a goodly number of candidates offered themselves whom we believed to be well fitted for the position, so far as scholastic preparation is concerned. In most cases they were already engaged in teaching, often at quite remote points. Usually they did not wish their present employers to be made uneasy by correspondence unless there was a definite prospect of their appointment. These are normal and inevitable conditions. It must always be difficult—but desirable—to bring together the right man and the right place when they are too far apart to know each other; and, of course, the man now employed and valued where he is, is generally the one wanted elsewhere.

A large number of our candidates had taken the highest degree at some great university, and were cordially endorsed by their former teachers, fellow-pupils, and clergymen. It was therefore impossible to make any intelligent choice by such criteria alone. It soon became painfully evident that many men of advanced special scholarship are now holding positions, and drawing salaries, not at all proportionate to their prolonged and costly preparation. A few men, with whom we corresponded more or less, were confident that their eminent capacity and success in teaching would be evident to any one who should visit their class-room. This may well have been true; but it could not be tested. A larger number felt that the degree of Ph.D. itself created an overwhelming presumption in their favor; but we could take only one of the many doctors. Nearly all supposed that letters of general eulogy on their character and scholarship were effective ammunition with which to storm the appointing powers. Unluckily, it is notorious that most employers will give glowing letters cheerfully to teachers whom they are eager to get rid of, or even to men they have actually dismissed! We were favorably impressed by one correspondent when he wrote, "I have no testimonials, because I don't think them worth the getting." Of course, that is not absolutely true. Indeed, the emphatic written statements of men we knew, had decisive weight at last in this very case. Still, many imposing stacks of such letters are not worth the stationery used.

At this point the question was usually raised, "What thesis, essay, sketch for a lecture, what bit of printed or written matter can you send us, to give us an idea of your individual tastes, methods, or theories?" In the overwhelming majority of cases the answer was "None"! Often the inquiry seemed to be considered an unreasonable criticism. The thesis subject, it was stated, was purely statistical, as the recurrence of some single word or phrase in certain authors. It was in process of revision, or radically inaccurate; in short, could not be seen. Nothing else was in existence.

Now, I will not, for the moment, raise the question as a test of good scholarship. Let us *concede* that a young man may be a mature, well-rounded master in his special field; may be fit to inspire, to encourage, and to guide younger students, and yet has never put on paper in connected form any ideas on any author, word, or topic in that entire field! The question still remains, How can he require his future employers to form any *im*pression of him, if he has given forth no *ex*pression of himself?

If the candidate were within speaking distance, we would ask him, perhaps, to give us some notion how he would introduce a class to Virgil's 'Aeneid': "What general ideas as to the poet's times, the political and artistic purpose of the epic, the original audience and its familiarity with the Trojan myth, should the children have before they attack this great poem?" Or, "What ode of Pindar would you read first, and why?" "Plan a four years' course in collegiate Latin, or Greek, with proper sequence and progressive difficulty." "Who is your favorite author, and what sort of special study have you made upon him?" That such things, and better things, should stuff the knapsack of any young veteran who has spent a long series of years in a special field, seems evident. Every normal school would have exacted such sustained self-interrogation, surely. But, as a matter of fact, our young classical scholars are bewildered, and often aggrieved, when such questions are raised. It seems worth while, therefore, to lay this inquiry before as many of them as can be reached, in the hope that it may help to clear up what seems to us a deplorable condition of things.

Our experience tempts us to raise the question, whether the classics are now being taught, and studied, in a way to contribute adequately toward the power to express thought. We always claim for Latin and Greek a central place in general culture, *because* they are indispensable to proper command of the mother-tongue. But what shall our preaching avail if we ourselves be castaways? If there be a corporal's guard among our younger specialists in classics who can give a readable account of their favorite authors and their works, setting forth their value to the general life of civilized man, it is not easy to discover those youths. Our periodical literature contains hardly an essay per year from any younger Humanist than B. I. Wheeler or Paul Shorey. "These things ought not so to be." No range of costly, highly specialized research will be cheerfully supported from age to age by the general community, which offers *no* interesting results in forms widely intelligible to thoughtful educated men and women.

The life of classical scholarship itself, then, and the career of the individual, both depend, and should depend, on his making some attempt to show that he has a healthy intellectual life, and that it is fed and strengthened by the studies to which he devotes himself. The questions raised here have many wide ramifications. The endeavor has been rather to limit than to expatiate upon them. It is sometimes a duty to advertise an individual experience in the interest of many. Prexie.

A ROMAN HOUSE IN FLORENCE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: While making a large drain on the southern side of the Baptistery of San Giovanni, the workmen came upon Roman buildings about two feet below the level of the Piazza. These evidently belonged to poor people and were of a late period. But under these again have been found the remains of a Roman house with a fine impluvium, the sandstone cornice being quite perfect. Prof. Milani, the very able and enthusiastic director of the Etruscan Museum of Florence, was immediately on the spot, and, under his guidance, as much of the house as is possible is now being laid bare, and will be removed to the courtyard of the Etruscan Museum, where the Professor is gradually collecting all the relics of ancient Florence. I say "as much as is possible," because the peristylium, with its annexes, is under the Baptistery. Only an angle of the tablinum can be seen. This discovery does away with the old tradition that San Giovanni was once a temple of Jupiter.

Evidently the house belonged to a wealthy citizen; it resembles the well-known house of Pansa at Pompeii. The entrance is to the south, but, unfortunately, in old days the vestibulum was destroyed by a large drain, which emitted the foulest odors when broken into and was full of black mud. The atrium is 10 metres 54 cent. long and 8 metres 18 cent. wide, smoothly paved with a composition made of Arno breccia and alabaster. The same pavement occurs in the wings of the tablinum and in the cubicula, or bedrooms, of which there are three on either side. A room to the left of the tablinum has a floor of plaster made of pounded tiles and mortar, with small cubes of dark marble dotted about in pretty pattern. Of this only one corner can be seen; the rest lies hidden under the Baptistery.

A small coin of Honorius was found on the sill of a doorway of the later and poorer buildings which were erected over the Roman house. These tabernæ were probably destroyed when San Giovanni was built, as in its foundations, laid bare where they cross the tablinum, are stones exactly like those which cut the Roman house in every sense. Only one inscription has as yet been found in the excavations, perhaps the names of the owners of the house: "V (iri) I (llustres) SEX Gabinius et...." The writing is of the second century. Janet Ross.

Poggio Gherardo, Via Settignanese, Florence, July 11, 1897.

Notes.

The *Century Magazine* offers prizes to college graduates (A.B.) in the United

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States of the present and of the three ensuing years, of $250 each, (1) for the best metrical writing of not fewer than fifty lines; (2) for the best essay in biography, history, or literary criticism within the limits of 4,000 to 8,000 words; (3) for the best story in the same space limit. The type-written MS. must be sent to the editor of the magazine, marked without and within "For the College Competition," signed with a pen name, and accompanied by a sealed envelope containing the writer's true name, on or before June 1 of the year succeeding graduation. The right to print the prize manuscripts without further payment is reserved, but the copyright will revert in three months to the respective authors.

The corporation of Bristol, England, have arranged with Mr. Francis B. Bickley of the British Museum to calendar their records. Students of the history of English colonization in America will be more particularly interested in those documents that relate to the Company of Merchant Adventurers. It will, however, be some time before these are reached. As Mr. Bickley reads ancient writings with facility, whether in Latin or in English, he is specially qualified for the work he is engaged upon.

Signora Bompiani's 'Short History of the Italian Waldenses' (New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.) is one of the superfluous books inspired by sympathy and imperfect knowledge. The story of the persecutions of the valleys of Dauphiné and Savoy and in Calabria can never lose its interest; but so much has been done in modern times to elucidate it that there is no excuse for the reiteration of the old fables which identify the Waldenses with Vigilantius and the Leonistæ, which claim Claudius of Turin as a member of the sect, and assign the date of 1100 to the *Nobla Leyczon*. Still worse is the assumption that the Manichæan Albigenses were brothers in faith as well as in suffering. The volume is rendered attractive by a number of photogravures of landscapes and portraits.

Two recent educational works, 'Chapters on the Aims and Practice of Teaching,' edited by Frederic Spencer (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press; New York: Macmillan), and 'An Experiment in Education,' by Mary R. Alling-Aber (Harpers), will be found suggestive, the former by instructors in secondary schools, the latter by all who are interested in the education of young children. In the English book the pedagogy of various branches of study is discussed by teachers of prominence. The first two chapters of 'An Experiment' are reprinted from the *Popular Science Monthly* for 1892. The function of either work, it should be added, would have been a more important one had they appeared before the reports of the Committees of Ten and of Fifteen proved such a powerful stimulus to educational thought among all classes of American teachers.

Mr. Stuart Henry's dainty volume, 'Hours with Famous Parisians' (Chicago: Way & Williams), contains more than a score of sketches, several of which have appeared before in English and American periodicals. The brevity of some of them suggests that a five minutes' visit might have sufficed to furnish the writer with all the points with which he favors us concerning his subjects. The celebrity of those subjects, and the vivacious report of their somewhat indiscreet visitor, make the little book entertaining reading.

A new supplement, covering the years 1879-1896, has appeared to Mr. J. B. Mayor's 'Guide to the Choice of Classical Books' (London: D. Nutt). It is particularly interesting to American and English scholars, and ought to be enlightening to Germans, because in it are noted many good books which have never appeared in the German bibliographical lists, which are so universally used. Attention should also be called to the preface, wherein Mr. Mayor offers some excellent food for thought, pointing towards improvements in the classical curriculum.

In 'Cicero and His Friends' (Putnams), a translation of Gaston Boissier's well-known work, Mr. A. D. Jones has been far more successful than his predecessors, who have recently attempted versions of other classical books by the same French scholar and academician. He has even put us under further obligation by adding a table of contents and an index. In its English form the book is fit to fill a real want, showing forth Cicero as a man, not as a contriver of syntactical puzzles, nor as a provider of convenient texts for dissertations on Roman antiquities. For parallel reading along with the orations, it is excellently adapted to use in classical schools, and may be recommended to all teachers and students of Cicero.

'The Christian Monuments of Rome' forms the first part of a 'Handbook to Christian and Ecclesiastical Rome' now in course of compilation by H. M. and M. A. R. T. (Macmillan). The other three parts will treat of the Liturgy, Monasticism, and things ecclesiastical. The present volume contains an introduction on the origin of the Church in Rome, and on the development of church buildings and the details of their interiors. Then follow brief accounts of the 350-odd Roman churches, their foundings and principal contents; and the book ends with a description of the Catacombs. It is well made, and travellers will find in it a useful supplement to Baedeker or Murray.

Luigi Borsari's 'Topografia di Roma' (Milan: Hoepli; New York: Lemcke & Buechner) is a neat little guide, small enough to be carried about in the pocket without betraying its presence by an unseemly bulge. Besides the ordinary information collected in such books, it provides references to larger works in which those who care to pursue the history of an antiquity will find it described in more detail.

Mr. Paul Leicester Ford makes, in the closing number of the second volume of the *American Historical Review*, what may fairly be called an ingenious attempt to controvert the conclusions reached by Prof. E. G. Bourne, in the previous number, as to the authorship of the disputed numbers of the *Federalist*. Prof. Bourne replies immediately, point for point, and with a weight and conclusiveness which amply confirm his original position. It cannot be said that Mr. Ford adds nothing to the discussion, but the one new material fact he adduces—that Hamilton inserted a paragraph in No. 56 in the edition of 1788 (Mr. Bourne having followed Lodge in assuming that it was in the 1802 edition)—is made to point the other way, from Hamilton to Madison, whose consent may well have been asked and given.

The Manning and allied families are shown in a tabular pedigree and in his usual complex of wills by Mr. Henry F. Waters in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for July. Mr. Waters's own stock, he shows, interlaces with the Mannings, as does that of the Whitfields.

Of the three articles in *Cosmopolis* for June devoted to Queen Victoria's Jubilee, that by Francis de Pressensé is the most elaborate and valuable. Having at his command a wide knowledge of English affairs, past and present, the writer sets forth with much originality the historical and political significance of the Victorian reign, and the universal side of the festivities then preparing. Theodor Barth, member of the Reichstag, without slighting the personal qualities of the Queen, sees a special blessing in England having been governed for sixty years by a *woman;* for a male ruler, the temptations to interfere in governmental details are greater and more numerous, and for a constitutional ruler a wise, laissez-faire principle is the most practical to adopt. Only a "gekrönter Universal-Dilettant" can have the pretension both to be a ruler and to manage everything. Sir Richard Temple does not write in as broad a spirit as either the French or the German contributor; the omission in an account of the "Reign of Queen Victoria" even of an allusion to the Prince Consort, for whom the royal widow has never laid aside her mourning, strikes one as too "intensely British."

Ernst Elster contributes to the *Rundschau* for June and July some fresh results of his long-continued investigations in the field of Heine literature. Of several letters printed here for the first time, some are of great interest. They present the character of the poet in no new light—this is not to be expected of new letters or documents of any kind. But we gather from these additional knowledge of Heine's relation to some of his contemporaries; and to learn, *e. g.*, that Humboldt interceded for him in a certain matter with the Prussian King and Minister is likely to raise the poet, be it ever so little, in the estimation of those who did not know him. Incidentally the critic, in his comments, dealt with other men of the second quarter of the century, among them the literary adventurer Wit, *genannt* Von Döring, and the fascinating figure of the youthful Ferdinand Lassalle, in whom Elster sees the originator (*geistigen Vater*) of the famous "Cassettendiebstahl" committed by two young millionaires in the interest of the unfortunate Countess Hatzfeldt.

Franklin and Marshall College, at Lancaster, Pa., can hardly be thought famous. Its elder member was founded in the above town in 1787, Franklin himself contributing to its endowment, and participating in the ceremonies of the corner-stone. The institution aimed to provide a higher education for Pennsylvania Germans. Marshall College was a foundation, in 1835, at Mercersburg, Pa., of the Reformed Church, for the supply of its ministry. Since 1852 these colleges have been united. The alumni have now published volume one of an 'Obituary Record' (Lancaster), which it is proposed to continue in parts till a second volume be fulfilled. Nine-tenths of the 219 deceased graduates here commemorated were natives of Pennsylvania and Maryland. In running over the index, the once well-known and now nearly as well-forgotten politician (ending as one of Grant's stalwart "306" in the struggle for the third term), John Cessna, alone occurs to us as having attained a national reputation.

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The colonial premiers visiting England were entertained at luncheon in the committee-room of the Public Record Office, London, on the 6th of July, by Lord Esher, the Master of the Rolls, who is legally the Keeper of the Records. The Deputy Keeper, Sir Maxwell Lyte, does the less nominal part of the duties connected with the preservation of the records of the kingdom. After luncheon the party were shown over the Museum, where a number of interesting historical documents are displayed for the inspection of the public. In addition to these a number of others were brought out on the occasion of the premiers' visit. Among the latter were: (1) The Log of the *Endeavour*, Captain James Cook, 1768-9 (No. 147); (2) Journal of a voyage to Otteheita in the year 1791, by H. M. S. *Providence*, Captain William Bligh (No. 173); (3) Log of the *Resolution*, 1779, at Hawaii (No. 217); (4) Log of H. M. S. *Challenger*, 1829, possession taken of Western Australia (Captains' Journals, No. 1968); (5) Holograph letter of Captain Cook to the Admiralty, recommending certain members of the crew of the *Endeavour* for promotion, Aug., 1771 (Admiralty: Captains' Letters, C 22). Among the documents shown the following related to British North America: (1) Entry of the Canada Act, 1791 (31 George III., cap. 31) on the Parliament Roll (1270, No. 1); (2) Entry of the Act of the Union of the Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, 1840 (3 and 4 Vic., cap, 35) on the Parliament Roll (3915, No. 14); (3) Early Treaties with Indians; (4) Account of the Fisheries at Newfoundland and return of the Fishing Fleet there, 1675 (State Papers, Colonial, 35, No. 16); (5) Original Treaty of Paris, 1763, regulating the Newfoundland Fisheries; (6) Original Peace of Versailles, 1783, limiting the same.

An Anglo-American writes to us from London on July 9: "Only one hundred librarians are coming to the Conference from America, instead of the three hundred that were originally expected. Of these about eighty have now arrived, including Mr. Justin Winsor. In addition to the hospitalities already mentioned, Sir Henry Irving has now joined in welcoming the librarians. For them he is giving a special performance of 'The Merchant of Venice' at the Lyceum on the 15th of July, when he will frank five hundred members of the Conference with seats in the boxes, stalls, and other best parts of the house."

The British Association for the Advancement of Science will meet at Toronto, Canada, on the 18th of August, under the presidency of Sir John Evans, Treasurer of the Royal Society, London. The American Association for the Advancement of Science will meet in the preceding week at Detroit, in order to enable its members subsequently to attend the meeting of the British Association. Several American scientific societies have accepted for their members the invitation to join the Association and attend its sessions, which will take place within the buildings of the University of Toronto. The honorary local secretaries for the meeting are Prof. A. B. Macallum and Messrs. B. E. Walker and J. S. Willison. The general secretaries are A. G. Vernon Harcourt and Prof. W. C. Roberts-Austen. The assistant general secretary will be, as usual, Mr. G. Griffith, the mainspring of the Association. The following will be the sections: (a) Mathematical and Physical Science: President, Prof. A. R. Forsyth; (b) Chemistry: President, Prof. W. Ramsay; (c) Geology: President, Dr. G. M. Dawson; (d) Zoölogy: President, Prof. L. C. Miall; (e) Geography: President, J. Scott Keltie, Secretary to the Royal Geographical Society, London; (f) Economic Science and Statistics: President, Prof. E. C. K. Gonner; (g) Mechanical Science: President, E. C. K. Deacon; (h) Anthropology: President, Sir W. Turner; (i) Physiology: President, Prof. Michael Foster; (k) Botany: President, Prof. H. Marshall Ward.

Prof. Hale announces that the formal dedication of the Yerkes Observatory will take place on the 1st of October next, although all details of the programme have not yet been arranged. It is hoped that some of the European scientific men who are intending to be present at the Toronto meeting of the British Association will take part in the formal inauguration. In connection with the dedicatory exercises it is planned to hold a series of informal conferences on astronomical and astrophysical subjects. The board of editors of the *Astrophysical Journal*, Profs. Hale, Keeler, Ames, Pickering, and others, will hold their fourth annual meeting at that time. In Prof. Hale's note he extends a cordial invitation to "all men of science who may be willing to honor the Observatory by their presence on this occasion."

—The geography of communications is the subject of an entertaining paper in the *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for July, by Sir Henry Tyler, the well-known railway magnate. At the outset he lays down the principle that the directions of the lines of communication—or, in other words, the dominating motives for movement—have been determined mainly by the three C's, Commerce, Conquest, and Conversion; that is, "the impulses of religion, including the resort to holy places and the propagation of creeds." He describes briefly the great trade and military routes of ancient times, ascribing to the Carthaginians the merit of being the first scientific road-builders. The longest continuous route mentioned was that from the Wall of Antoninus, with two short sea passages of forty-two and thirty-eight miles, to Jerusalem, "about 3,750 miles." With the revival of commerce at the close of the Middle Ages, "a religious order was founded in England which spread into several Continental countries, for repairing and improving roads and bridges." In the New World the Incas of Peru were admirable road-makers. "The road from Quito to Cuzco, which was some 1,500 miles long and forty feet wide, was formed with stones ten feet square, and was planted with avenues of trees, and supplied with running water. Attaining levels of 14,000 feet and more above the sea, it passed over pathless and, at certain seasons, snow-clad sierras, through leagues of rock tunnels, and across great streams and torrents, and was carried over the ravines of the Andes by masonry built up solid from their greatest depths." The bridges, on the other hand, were constructed with the frailest materials, "cables and ropes of twisted osiers and vines stretched from bank to bank, bound together and floored with bamboo or timber." Sir Henry has a hopeful word for the Panama Canal, whose completion, he believes, after a careful inspection of the works, the machinery, and the route in 1895, is "possible now on the revised scheme of the new company." He estimates that there are now in the world, in round numbers, 466,000 miles of railway open for traffic—250,000 in America,—constructed at a cost of $60,000,000,000, and 30,000 ocean-going vessels with an aggregate tonnage of 25,600,000. There are many other statistics in regard to canals, tramways, telegraph and postal work, together with facts and incidents drawn from the writer's large experience as a railway promoter and traveller. He closes with an earnest plea for freedom of communication. "In proportion to the cheapness and rapidity with which passengers and freight can be profitably conveyed and information exchanged, so is prosperity attained, civilization promoted, and knowledge increased." Then, after a protest against monopolies, censorship of the telegraph, high protection duties, and passport annoyances as "practical mistakes," he adds, "Subsidized industries, bounty-fed branches of business, and other unnatural sources of temporary prosperity only act by way of stimulus in producing artificial results, and ultimately combine against the public and private weal."

—The Brooklyn Historical Club has reprinted in a hundred copies the series of letters bearing on the relations of Thomas Jefferson and James Thomson Callender (1798-1802), compiled and edited by Worthington C. Ford, which we have from time to time commented on as they appeared in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*. No charity can wholly excuse Jefferson's subsidies to this scurrilous pamphleteer and journalist, with his "humble arts of insinuation"; and posterity will join in Mrs. John Adams's frank arraignment of the Virginian, in correspondence with him which concludes the pamphlet. Callender renders some service to the student in two especial particulars: in his account of Gabriel's insurrection in 1800, during the libeller's imprisonment in Richmond jail upon conviction under the Alien and Sedition Act, and his glimpses of Southern society of the period—but is it such an old story? Mr. Field, printer of the *Republican*, "was unfortunately involved about twelve months ago in a dispute, the result of which proved fatal to his antagonist; but it appeared on an examination of the unhappy transaction, before the proper tribunal, that it was in Mr. Field a justifiable act of self-defence." This was the familiar euphemism of John Shore addressing John Strode. Callender's equally sympathetic account was: "He had been publicly assaulted in the market-place by Mr. Cross, who was a much stronger man. The circle of aristocrats [Federalists], one of whom was a magistrate, stood around to enjoy the victory; nor did they once offer to interfere, until Mr. Field was forced to pull out a pistol and shoot the aggressor." Again, quoting Callender: "On Tuesday last, Randolph sent for me to the custom-house to get the money, which it seems he has received orders to pay. I did not chuse to go there *alone*, as that very forenoon the [Federal] faction had published a piece recommending me to a drubbing. So I went to General Jones. He was ready, he said, to go with me; but that the card ran in such a stile as no gentleman should answer. Another gentleman, to whom I applied, made the same observation. Upon this I held myself justified in writing Randolph to bring or send up the money." We might add that Callender's letters contain many verbal curiosities, and

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that the pamphlet is altogether diverting as well as instructive.

—In his 'Valori Pubblici e Operazioni di Borsa,' one of the excellent series of manuals published by Ulrico Hoepli of Milan (New York: Lemcke & Buechner), Dr. F. Piccinelli has collected a vast amount of valuable information in regard to Italian securities and stock exchanges in particular, and financial affairs in general. Much of this information, especially such as relates to the currency systems of different countries, may be found in similar treatises in other languages; but the long category of Italian banks and joint-stock companies, including, as it does, a brief history of each institution, cannot be found elsewhere, and is interesting because it shows that a great number of these concerns have not only survived the financial storms of the past three years, but have continued to pay dividends to their shareholders. Some of the information about other countries is not equally up to date. We had supposed that the case of the United States currency patient was of interest to the whole race of financial doctors, and that the business of the New York Stock Exchange was on so great a scale as to make it important to the financial world. But the most recent information Dr. Piccinelli gives as to our currency situation is that in 1892 a committee of the Senate reported favorably a free-coinage bill, while New York is omitted from a list of foreign stock exchanges which includes Buenos Ayres! In his preface the learned Doctor expresses the hope that the knowledge diffused by this manual may have the effect of restricting the financial disasters "che hanno contristato e contristano l'Italia nostra." But it is to be feared that this hope is illusory, for it has been invariably found that financial disasters are caused by the weakness, the greed, or the dishonesty of individuals, rather than by their ignorance of the science of economics. Of a similarly delusive character is the wisdom supposed to be contained in a collection of rules for the guidance of operators on the stock exchange. In these we are informed that "gran parte della scienza di Borsa si riduce a questa proposizione: essere bene informati." The experience of the Anglo-Saxon speculator, on the other hand, makes him suspicious of all information, and finds expression in the proverbial "Early information and bank accommodation will ruin any man." But if there be any who believe that success in speculation can be achieved by following printed directions, they will find an abundance of such guidance in this handy volume, which is written in the most pellucid Italian.

—Pitrè's 'Biblioteca delle Tradizioni Popolari Siciliane,' lately noticed by us, will always be the storehouse of individual facts from which may be constructed connected accounts of the Sicilian people in their various activities. Such a picture of the Sicilian peasant has just been drawn by an independent observer, next to Pitrè, perhaps, the one most familiar from his own observations with the manners and customs of Sicily. The work is entitled 'Costumi ed Usanze dei Contadini di Sicilia, delineati da Salvatore Salomone-Marino' (Palermo: Sandron). This most interesting and valuable work is practically a compend of Pitrè's twenty volumes. In it the life of the Sicilian peasant is given from the cradle to the grave, in twenty-seven chapters, in which are described such topics as the peasant's family and house, his day's work; how he spends his evenings; seed-time and harvest, Sunday, festivals, weddings, dress, etc. An appendix contains various compositions by poets of the people descriptive of peasant life in the first half of this century—a life which, Signor Salomone-Marino says, is rapidly changing under the influence of the new order of things in Italy. The author says: "I speak of the peasants of the old stamp, whose generation is already declining and in a few years will be sought in vain. The new peasants do not concern us: the unavoidable conscription returns them to us more learned, polite, and quick, but at the same time with a burden of ambitious, crude, and corrupt ideas which will give them another type—I cannot yet say what, but certainly far removed from the traditional one of their native island, and perhaps not so good." It is for this reason that works like Pitrè's and Salomone-Marino's have such inestimable value. The type is changing rapidly all over Italy, the dialects are fast disappearing, and in a few years the popular speech and customs will have to be sought in books.

—The annual report of the Astronomer Royal to the Board of Visitors announces that a number of new instruments have been added to the permanent equipment at Greenwich; among them an alt-azimuth, and an equatorial presented by Sir Henry Thompson. Photographs of the moon and of double stars have been taken inside and outside the focus, with a view to adjustment of the object-glass; the separation between the lenses being varied, in order to correct a small outstanding aberration. A powerful battery of instruments is carried by the equatorial—no less than five large telescopes. Up to the 10th of May, 551 successful fields were obtained in the progress of photo-mapping the heavens, leaving about 600 still to complete the Greenwich allotment. Solar photographs are constantly taken, the spot activity having continued in general to decline since last year, despite two cases of temporary revival; and magnetic and weather observations are continued as in the past. Dr. David Gill, her Majesty's astronomer at the Cape, sends also to the Secretary of the Admiralty his account of the year's work. The McClean telescope fittings, walls, and dome are far advanced toward completion, as well as the machinery of the hydraulic rising floor, which promises to be an important adjunct to the convenience of the new observatory, providing an equipment for spectroscopic work long needed at the Cape. Several publications have appeared during the year. The second volume of 'A Determination of the Solar Parallax and Mass of the Moon from Observations of Iris, Victoria, and Sappho, in the years 1888 and 1889,' is ready for distribution. Two volumes of the Cape Photographic *Durchmusterung* will soon be issued, containing together the places of more than 300,000 stars. On account of the absence of H. M.'s Astronomer in England, passing works through the press, the famous heliometer has not contributed its usual quota to the work of the observatory. The useful time-service continues, signals at Greenwich mean noon being distributed by a central system of relays. All told, the degree of activity in British official astronomical circles, under the direction of able chiefs, themselves competent astronomers, is most satisfactory and reassuring.

DR. PETERS AT NIPPUR.

Nippur; or, Explorations and Adventures on the Euphrates. The Narrative of the University of Pennsylvania Expedition to Babylonia in the years 1888-1890. By John Punnett Peters, Ph.D., Sc.D., D.D., Director of the Expedition. With illustrations and maps. Vol. I., First Campaign. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. xv, 375. 1897.

Nufar, Nuffar, or Niffer is the modern name of a mound lying on the old canal bed known as Shatt-en-Nil, about ninety miles south-southeast from Bagdad, and fifty miles southeast from the site of ancient Babylon. It is between the Euphrates and the Tigris—here fifty or sixty miles apart—some twenty miles from the former and over thirty from the latter at the nearest points. Its latitude is about 32° 6′ north (the parallel of Savannah, Ga.), and its longitude about 42° 50′ east. It is surrounded by swamps and the territory of jealous Arab tribes. It is difficult to reach; more difficult still to occupy for a length of time, amid hostile and greedy natives and fever-laden vapors from the marshes. Yet this mound has been reached and occupied and excavated; it has yielded priceless treasures; and the credit belongs to the expeditions sent out by the University of Pennsylvania and sustained by the generous gifts of Philadelphians.

The mound is the ruin-heap of an ancient city, once known as Nippur, famous in Babylonian history. The excavations have been conducted with system and scientific plan, like those of Schliemann at Ilium, or Petrie and Bliss at Tel el-Hesy, so as to trace the successive stages of the town's history, marked distinctly by the successive layers of débris. Not only have implements of stone and metal, jars, sarcophagi, cuneiform cylinders, and tablets in vast quantity been brought to light—the estimate of inscribed objects runs to between 30,000 and 40,000—but many of the inscriptions are of the most archaic type, and demonstrably from a remote antiquity; affording material for fruitful study into the origin of the cuneiform signs (see the *Nation* for June 17), and extending our knowledge of Babylonian civilization probably thousands of years backward. Prof. H. V. Hilprecht of Philadelphia has already edited a sufficient number of these texts to prove their invaluable character. The evidence of inscriptions is confirmed by the independent evidence of the ruin-strata. Thirty-five feet below the surface, underlying elaborate remains of building, there has been found a pavement of burnt bricks inscribed with the names of Sargon and his son Naram-Sin, who flourished 3800-3750 B. C. Below this, again, the débris extends at least thirty feet deeper, to virgin soil, with the remains of at least two temples, one superimposed upon the other, and apparently carrying back the earliest history of the city not less than 2,000 or 3,000 years further still, while midway of these lower strata a drain with a key-stone arch indicates the high degree of civilization reached by the inhabitants of Nippur, say between 5,000 and 6,000 B. C. No discoveries have been more important in helping us to conceive and picture the sweep of ancient history.

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Now, it is the beginning of these discoveries which Dr. Peters sets forth in the attractive volume before us. The inception of the plan was due to him—then a professor in Philadelphia; the actual setting on foot of the enterprise, the raising of the needed money, the organization of the first party, were the result of his energy, meeting with a cordial response from large-minded friends of learning. He headed the first expedition; it was he that determined upon Nippur as the best site for beginning work, influenced in part by information courteously furnished by a German party which had looked over the ground; for two years he conducted the excavations at Nippur in person; and, but for his persistence in the face of discouragement and obstacles that seemed to others insurmountable, it is safe to say that the diggings would have ceased at the end of the first spring's work, and the greater part of the rich results afterwards secured by Dr. Peters himself in 1890, and by his successor, Dr. J. H. Haynes, in 1893-1895, would have been lost to the world, at least for many years to come. It is this fact which gives a significance even beyond its intrinsic interest to the present volume. This describes the steps which led up to the undertaking, the preliminary work, the journey to the field, and the labors of the first few months there.

The story is told with simplicity, directness, and precision. The author neither thrusts himself unduly into the foreground, nor uses self-conscious circumlocutions when the narrative requires him to mention himself. The detail is sufficient, but not excessive. The selection from abundant material is made with judgment, and the perspective is good. Personal experiences and scientific facts are skilfully combined, with a vein of genial humor underlying accounts of the former, and scholarship both ample and exact marking statements of the latter. At times there is an almost unexpected frankness, both in representing the difficulties of dealing with Turks and Arabs, and in acknowledging the mistakes of inexperience on the part of the explorers themselves. All in all, while the book has a marked individuality, it is a fit companion for the classic works of Layard and Loftus, and of itself is a credit to American learning and literary skill—pleasant to read, and well worth the reading.

No exploring party has ever gone to Babylonia with more careful equipment than this first expedition of the University of Pennsylvania. No less than four of the names are those of scholars recognized in Assyriology, Professors R. F. Harper, H. V. Hilprecht, J. P. Peters, and J. D. Prince; Mr. Haynes went as photographer and business manager, Mr. P. H. Field as architect, surveyor, and engineer, and Mr. D. Z. Noorian as interpreter. Of these Mr. Haynes and Mr. Noorian had accompanied Dr. Ward on the Wolfe expedition in 1884-1885. Great pains were taken to pave the way by diplomacy; much consultation and forethought was devoted to the outfit and every kind of preparation. The larger part of the present volume is occupied with the preliminaries and the journey. The wearisome delays occasioned by evasive Turkish officialism at Constantinople are vividly depicted. Perhaps the most entertaining incident is the authorized smuggling of the expedition's firearms from steamer to shore at Alexandretta, but the whole account of the Constantinople sojourn, and the descriptions of noteworthy characteristics of that anomalous European city, are picturesque and life-like. One is at times reminded of 'Moltke's Letters,' a book too little known outside of Germany. Among other things, Dr. Peters pays a high tribute to Hamdy Bey, the enlightened Director of the Imperial Museum at Stambul.

From Constantinople to Alexandretta the route was by sea; thenceforward in the saddle. Aleppo was the chief stopping-place between the Mediterranean and the Euphrates, and the journey along the Euphrates followed, as usual, the right bank, through Deir, Anah, and Hit. The author dwells with just satisfaction on the identification of Kal'at Dibse—a dozen miles below the first eastward bend of the Euphrates, at Barbalissus—with the Biblical Tiphsah, the Thapsacus of the Greeks and Romans. The identification is one of those happy "finds" which need only to be stated to meet with general acceptance and become the common property of scholars. (The discovery was announced by Dr. Peters at the time, in the *Nation*, May 23, 1889.) On his Euphrates journey the author makes constant but independent use of the records of Chesney's exploration, supplementing and modifying them as circumstances require, and all along the route shows himself the competent scholar, discoursing genially of matters of scholarly interest, and often of general human interest as well. The condition of the people, the possibilities of agriculture, the characteristic peculiarities of different towns and different regions all draw his attentive eye. We know of no better presentation, in a few chapters, of the state of the country, even apart from the merits of the narrative as that of a scholar's journey.

Dr. Peters makes especial acknowledgment of the marked courtesies of Major Talbot, the acting Indian Resident and British Consul-General in Bagdad, to whom the party were greatly indebted for many attentions and facilities. It is pleasant to know that formal recognition of them was subsequently made by our Government. From Bagdad on the difficulties increased. One can hardly give in a few sentences a fair idea of the hindrances put in the expedition's path by the dulness or arbitrariness of officials, the envy and rapacity of Arab tribes, submitting to the Turkish yoke only in the presence of superior force, and frankly rejecting it when they felt strong enough to do so, and not least by the pestilential climate, which reduced the whole party, and left them scarcely fit to cope with the intricate questions constantly thrust in their way.

The party had been delayed almost three months in Constantinople, awaiting the official permission to excavate. Hence, although Dr. Peters left America in June, 1888, it was the last day of January, 1889, before he reached Nippur, and digging was not begun until February 6, when thirty-two men were set to work. Only a little more than two months were spent in excavating that season, but the number of laborers was greatly increased. Under all the circumstances, although the brevity of the term and the meagreness of result of that first season's digging very naturally seemed an unfortunate contrast with the elaborateness of the preparation and the number of scholars participating, it is doubtful whether more could have been accomplished. The season was cut short by some ten days through the excitement and peril arising over the death of an Arab, shot by one of the Turkish guard while trying to steal the horses. The actual departure, made in haste and with considerable loss of property, bore, no doubt, somewhat the aspect of a retreat. There was also a general discouragement among the members of the party. Some lack of personal harmony seems hinted at in a single sentence. Most of the party formally resigned. Dr. Peters sums up the record in a gloomy paragraph:

"Our first year at Nippur had ended in failure and disaster. I had failed to win the confidence of my comrades. None of them agreed with me in my belief in the importance of Nippur and the desirability of excavating down to the foundations. The Arabs had proved treacherous. The Turkish authorities disbelieved our story of Arab treachery, and suspected us of plotting with our Turkish commissioner to carry away antiquities. I was sick and nervous, having suffered for two months almost incessantly from severe facial neuralgia and consequent sleeplessness. In fact, I was on the verge of collapse, and the world had never seemed quite so black before."

All the more must we admire the pluck which led the author to determine to prosecute the excavations at Nippur farther another season, with such rich and ample fruits. Meantime, he returned home, as the other members of the party did, with the exception of Mr. Haynes, who, fortunately for future excavation, had been made Consul at Bagdad, and Mr. Noorian, who remained with him. The second volume will contain the account of the work carried on by Dr. Peters on his return to Nippur in 1890, and will be awaited with keen interest.

The book is illustrated with photographs and drawings, and (as frontispiece) with the portrait of Mr. E. W. Clark of Philadelphia, to whom the support of the expedition was largely due. There are two maps in a pocket, one of the route along the Euphrates, and the other of Babylonia from Bagdad to Ur. As appendices we have the subscription paper of the Babylonian exploration fund of the University of Pennsylvania; the first application for permission to excavate; the irade granting the permission; the Turkish law on archæological excavations; a brief outline of the geography of the Euphrates, from ancient authorities; and last, but not least, a portion of the diary of Dr. William Hayes Ward, leader of the Wolfe expedition to Babylonia, beginning with his departure from Bagdad, January 12, 1885, and ending at Beirut in the following April. This covers nearly sixty pages, and is now published for the first time. Dr. Ward is a keen and accurate observer, and his compact record, including frequent compass notations, is of much value. His journey included Nippur, Tell Nasriyeh, and Ur-Mugheir, and on his return he passed through Palmyra. Some of the illustrations of Dr. Peters's book are from photographs taken by the Wolfe expedition.

We cannot close this review without expressing once more the debt of the whole world of scholars to the University of Pennsylvania, under whose auspices the exploration of the mound of Nippur has been carried so far, to the personal devotion of the explorers, with Dr. Peters at their head, and to the "public-spirited gentlemen of Philadelphia," to whom he dedicates his book. Money and labor have been worthily spent. It is, indeed, no new thing. No-

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where on earth are private means and effort more lavishly given for education, to say nothing of benevolence, than in the United States. Expeditions have been sent eastward and westward, to Arizona and Mexico, as well as Babylonia—to Alaska and to Africa. Archæological schools are situated at Athens and at Rome, besides the great benefactions at home. It is well that it should be so. It is desirable that it should be so more and more. What Philadelphia has done at Nippur might be repeated with perhaps equal wealth of result by other American cities, in other Babylonian, Mesopotamian, and Syrian mounds. Whoever undertakes it ennobles material possessions by using them nobly—making them contribute to the intellectual and moral resources of the nation and the world.

The Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain. By Sir Archibald Geikie. Macmillan & Co. 1897. 2 vols., royal 8vo, with 7 maps.

Southern Scotland and northern England are visited by multitudes of strangers each year, and many get as far as the Western Isles. Few of them, however, are reminded of volcanic phenomena, though columnar basalts, such as those of Fingal's cave, may sometimes suggest the thought of lava. Yet for long periods of time in the far past this region has been covered with volcanoes like Hecla, and lava sheets like those of the Snake River. Japan is not more plagued with earthquakes than England has been, and the quiet little island has had its Krakatoas. It may have them again, but there is no immediate danger.

Geological conclusions such as these, when based on an overwhelming amount of undeniable evidence, appeal strongly to the imagination; indeed, it is such appeals which call forth the spirit of research and thus create science. But it is not for the immediate purpose of stimulating the imagination that Sir Archibald Geikie's latest work is written. Volcanoes and volcanic rocks have always been attractive subjects to students of nature, "naturalists" in the good, broad sense in which Lord Kelvin uses the term. Within a generation this interest has greatly increased because of the invention of slicing even such unpromising rocks as basalt so very thin that the sections become transparent and can then be studied under the microscope, with an amount of detail not dreamed of by earlier geologists. The method seems to have been invented by Nicol, whose name is ordinarily connected with an extremely useful prism familiar to microscopists. Slicing was introduced, however, by Dr. Sorby, and the study of rocks under the microscope has been most ardently pursued on the Continent of Europe by Rosenbusch, Michel-Lévy, and their pupils.

The development of such a method of study, which could be quietly pursued at home and at ease by the contemplation and interpretation of objects which, in the polarized light ordinarily employed, exhibit most enchanting colors, naturally attracted many votaries. The consequence is that the minutest details of composition and structure of a vast number of volcanic rocks are now known to students. In fact, the quantity of detailed information is really embarrassing. Generalizations are needed to render it comprehensible; and, above all, the results of microscopic study need correlation with what may be called the life-history of volcanoes, interpreted on sound principles of natural philosophy.

Most volcanic regions do not offer very much opportunity for inquiry into the evolution of volcanoes, or into the relations which the many modifications of mineralogical and chemical composition bear to one another. In many regions the rocks are too new; only the latest ejecta are exposed. In others they are too old; the superstructure has been cut away under the action of "water dropping day by day," and only the foundations remain. It has been known to geologists that the volcanic region of England, particularly the Western Isles, presents remarkable exposures. There the accidents of topography have been such that, while the relatively recent rocks remain in sufficient quantities, the more ancient ones are also exposed, so that a complete autopsy of the dead volcanic giants is possible. It is as a contribution to this subject that Sir Archibald's book is intended. It represents the accumulated results of more than two-score years of observation and study of the history and the relations of the volcanic rocks. They are presented with all the charm of style of one of the masters of the language, and they are illustrated with a generosity worthy of the subject.

It is impracticable to convey an adequate impression of so extensive a work in a brief review, but some idea must be given of the author's attitude towards doubtful questions. One of the famous deductions of Lord Kelvin was that volcanic energy must have lessened as the age of the earth increased. Now in the volcanic area of Great Britain two periods of activity are abundantly represented. The earlier is Palæozoic, the other Tertiary, and between them intervened the vast Mesozoic age. When the earlier eruptions ceased, the first mammalian animals had not come into existence. When the second series of outbursts died away, Homo Sapiens may already (somewhere on the globe) have developed conceit enough to call himself wise. The time interval is of course immense, a very appreciable fraction of the entire age of the earth; but in Great Britain at least there is every evidence that the later eruptions were not less vigorous than the earlier ones. It does not follow, however, that vulcanicity in the world as a whole has not lessened with time, though it probably decreased more rapidly when the earth was very young than it is now doing. Lord Kelvin's inference is not impaired by the fact that the British Islands do not illustrate its truth.

It is very largely to the study of this region that we owe the generalization that the volcanic rocks of ancient periods are not essentially different from the more modern flows. The hypothesis, never very strenuously held, that there was a difference, arose in part from the changes which the vicissitudes of time have produced in the older volcanics, and partly from the fact that it is, as a rule, only the lower portions of the older rocks which remain for comparison with the superficial portions of the younger series. In Scotland, however, there are exceptional opportunities for comparison admirably described by Sir Archibald. The natural and simple conclusion is that volcanic phenomena repeat themselves as often as certain chemical and physical conditions recur, and are as independent of time as is the action of gravity.

The order of succession of eruptive rocks in a connected series of eruptions is a subject in which all students of rocks are now intensely interested. Sir Archibald finds that, as a rule, those rocks, such as peridotites and basalts, which contain a relatively small amount of silica, were the first to appear, and that the amount of silica gradually increased, so that the last eruptions were most siliceous. This is a radically different result from that reached by American geologists in the Rocky Mountain region. The succession among the British lavas, however, is not invariable, and Sir Archibald wisely concludes that the true explanation of these alternations is of a complex order. It is, indeed, by no means clear that the order of complexity is not of an insoluble degree and due in large measure to what we call accident.

Sir Archibald's treatment of the origin of rock differences is somewhat disappointing. He does not fairly face the problems involved, and contents himself for the most part with recording the evidence that allied rocks in some cases have a community of origin. He does, however, insist that the banded gabbros and gneisses are derived from heterogeneous magmas. With so large an accumulation of facts so carefully studied, he should have been able to reach more definite conclusions, even if he had been obliged to state them tentatively. His responsibility in the circumstances is not quite ended by a lucid and attractive chronicle of the phenomena, but, fortunately, Sir Archibald has time to make good this sin of omission. The question as to how far various rocks are derived from a common magma, and by what processes differences have been evolved, is not of interest to students of petrography only. It is bound up with the constitution of the earth's interior, and even with the origin of the earth itself.

'The Ancient Volcanoes of Great Britain' is a treasury of detailed facts to which geologists will long turn for examples of almost every phase of vulcanism. It is a pity it is an expensive book, for every geologist will want to own it, but it could have been cheapened only at the expense of its value.

Pictures of Russian History and Russian Literature. By Prince Serge Wolkonsky. Boston: Lamson, Wolffe & Co.

Those who were so fortunate as to hear Prince Volkonsky (this is the more accurate but less fashionable way of transliterating his name) during his visit to America in 1896 will be glad to own this permanent record of his Lowell Lectures. The personal charm of his manner is missing, but the peculiar value of the matter remains. The volume is especially valuable for people who wish to explore the subject of Russian history and literature in the critical writings of different countries, as well as in the writings of Russian authors and critics, for Prince Volkonsky gives very full lists of all the books to which he refers, with copious footnotes bearing on the text. These lists and notes, taken in connection with the remarkably clear, well-proportioned pictures of his lectures, furnish if not the best condensed and thorough work that is to be had, at least one of the best. It must not be thought that the author, though compelled, by the nature of his subject, to indulge in much compilation from other sources, contents himself with merely reporting other people's ideas.

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On the contrary, the flashes of wit and insight which illumine nearly every page, added to the good judgment as to what could best be incorporated in a series of lectures necessarily of comparatively brief compass, render the book as nearly perfect as it is possible for such a book to be. It would be hard to suggest a single addition or alteration. It will prove a boon both to reading-clubs and to solitary students.

One delightful feature is, that though the author never hesitates to speak the whole truth in unmistakable terms, he does it with such tact and courtesy, as well as thoroughness, that even the victims must, perforce, acknowledge the justice of his descriptions or strictures. What can be more accurate than the gentle statement and warning (p. 7) as to what the foreigner's method is, and what he must not and must expect in the matter of Russia and her literature? He begins by quoting Prince Viazemsky: "If you want an intelligent Englishman or Frenchman to talk nonsense, let him emit an opinion on Russia; it is a subject which intoxicates him and at once clouds his intellect." People go to Russia with preconceived opinions, and are too diligently engaged in matching their assumed facts with proofs to see the real facts. He then proceeds to mention the American girl "who frankly confessed that she did not like Russian novels representing Russian life; she thought things they pictured were not original enough, lacking 'local color'; she much preferred English novels about Russia, they were so much more 'Russian'—with their snow, wolves, police agents, and the threatening prospect of Siberia in the background."

But we may safely omit further reference to details until (p. 106) we come to the subject of Peter the Great. Despite the fact that foreigners know more about Tsar Peter—on the surface—than about almost any other character in Russian history, there are, nevertheless, puzzling points about his character, career, and the influence which he still exerts, in reality and in debate, that require lucid explanation, and that lucid explanation the author furnishes. "If any one should ask us, How did he do it [that is, weld the scattered forces and impulses of the nation into a compact, vital whole]? extravagant as it may seem, we should answer with one word, 'He lived.' Peter the Great lived, and that was enough; his life was the people's life; his learning and labor were his nation's improvement; his advance was the advance of the country; his success was Russia's success." And he quotes the historian Solovieff: "Peter the Great is the last and greatest *hero*. Only Christianity and proximity to our own times have saved us (and this only to a certain extent) from a religious worshipping of this demigod, and from mythological recitals about the exploits of this Hercules. He is a hero in the antique sense; he is in modern times the only specimen of those gigantic natures of which we see so many in the misty distance of ages at the foundation and formation of human societies." From this beginning the author gradually works out the perfect portrait, reminding us that

> "that sovereign, who is so much accused by the so-called national party for his propensity to foreigners, leaves the state affairs at his death exclusively in Russian hands. . . . Now we believe in him; for we have acquired that moral education which he neglected for what he considered of more urgent importance; and, enriched with that moral education, we now judge his work and approve of it. . . . During thirty-six years the country was on the go; towards the end, people began to feel tired; a sort of relaxation followed Peter's death; the workers took rest, yet the work stood firm—it cannot perish, and this is perhaps the greatest test of the enormousness of his effort, that he made it impossible for the country to turn back. Peter the Great is accused of having turned his country out of its natural course, of having trampled upon the national spirit in order to impose the foreign culture of Western Europe. . . . For his violence and cruelty, people have compared him to John the Terrible. . . . People really seem to forget of what times they speak. Read the Memoirs of the Margravine of Bayreuth, Frederick the Great's sister, you will see what was going on at her father's court in Berlin in this same eighteenth century. And what did stout Frederick William of Brandenburg do to expiate his brutalities? But as he was a brute, nobody mentions him, whereas a great man's faults are registered so as to form a regular indictment."

The lecturer then explains the Slavophil and the corresponding current of public opinion, and winds up with a warning that no one can know a country by reading about it, but only by reading its national books—with such discreet assistance and suggestion as he affords, he might have added; and that "Europe's eighteenth century is Russia's eighteenth century—it is the first coincidence of universal and Russian chronology."

The best way to show the value of the author's suggestive style is by quotations, and we therefore permit ourselves to indulge in them more at length than usual, because of the need, as evinced by the innumerable valueless compilations which leave matters as obscure as they find them. Here is a just comparison: "If you consider that over two hundred years separate the German translation of the Bible by Luther from Goethe, and that only fifty years separate the Russian Grammar by Lomonossov from Pushkin, and less than a hundred years lie between Lomonossov and Leo Tolstoi, you will get an idea of the enforced pace by which Russian thought was advancing." An interesting contribution to the question of censorship is given on p. 225. Gogol's famous play, "The Inspector," which has never been taken off the Russian stage since the Emperor Nicholas I. ordered its production intact, was pitilessly mutilated by the German manager when, after many hesitations, he accepted it for the Imperial stage in Berlin, in 1895! Slavophilism—that mysterious subject to the foreigner—is clearly set forth, after a preliminary characterization as "spread-eagleism," which is deliciously accurate in its general outlines. The manner in which the emancipation of the serfs is handled, and the setting forth of the reasons why Russia will not have the labor question to deal with for centuries to come, is another valuable contribution to current discussion.

Probably, the chapter which will awaken the most vivid interest is Lecture viii., wherein the modern writers Turgeneff, Dostoievsky, and Tolstoi are treated with the greatest enthusiasm, justice, and delicacy. Prince Volkonsky sets forth how Grigorovitch, in 'Anton the Miserable' (he might have added, 'The Fishermen,' also), not Turgeneff, as is generally believed, was the first to introduce the peasant into the novel; considers the claims which Dostoievsky possesses (and which we heartily acknowledge) to the final judgment pronounced upon him by the author—"The light left behind by Dostoievsky is one of the purest that shine on this earth; it is one of the most precious legacies bequeathed by man to future generations"; and, finally, discusses the relations in which Count L. N. Tolstoi stands to Turgeneff, Dostoievsky, society, Christianity, together with his tendencies, which are distinctly in the direction of disintegration. It is impossible to do justice by quotations to the fine analysis of Tolstoi's teachings, the clear reasoning and logical argument. We must refer our readers to the book itself for this subject, as for the many things which we have passed over unnoted, but not unappreciated. It is possible that a careful perusal of this last chapter, in particular, will help many people to understand the exact drift of the Count's doctrines, and their own attitude in respect to them.

It is a sincere pleasure to be able to give such unreserved praise to a book as we can to this one. It is no easy matter to infuse new life into formal subjects, and so to combine the history of a nation and a literature for a thousand years that the result will become a living fountain of thought and inspiration. Yet this difficult feat Prince Volkonsky has accomplished. We congratulate him and his readers.

Ricordi Tipografici di un Viaggio agli Stati Uniti (Marzo-Giugno, 1892), di Piero Barbèra. Florence: S. Landi. 1897.

This little brochure consists of reminiscences, by the present head of the famous publishing house of Barbèra in Florence, lately contributed to the *Arte della Stampa*, touching his visit to this country in 1892 with an especial eye to the state of the printer's art among us. Incidentally he has something to say as a tourist, and cannot withhold a chapter from the Boston of Franklin, whose Autobiography counted for so much in the life of his own honored father; nor from Harvard College. And if he notes the fact that railroad time-tables are freely given away in the United States, instead of being sold, as in Italy, or that our street-car conductors are not always civil, or that our newspapers are disgracefully pitchforked together and stuffed with all sorts of scandals and personalities and puerile "indiscretions," or remarks among the outlying market stalls of Faneuil Hall (which he happily styles the Jeu de Paume of the American Revolution) his fellow-Italians in colorable quantity, these are pure asides from his main purpose.

He takes his first typographic lesson in Chicago, where he investigates, at Rand, McNally & Co.'s huge establishment, the mystery of the manufacture of the railroad maps there turned out. He next describes, with the aid of many illustrations, the appointments of the Riverside Press at Cambridge. Then, with an intervening chapter on the offices of the Century Co., he very minutely and lucidly reports upon the De Vinne Press, of which his admiration is all but unqualified, and finally with good reason sketches the typographic career of Mr. De Vinne himself. Throughout, Signor Barbèra shows himself a most intelligent and exact observer, and his narrative has the charm of simplicity, cultivation, and humor. To any one practically familiar with typography, it offers much interest in the parallel technical terms (more identical than might be supposed), as when he says of job offices that they are called *travaux de ville*

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in French and *bottellame* in Italian. His conclusions are very flattering to our proficiency in the art of printing, which he places on a higher level than that of Europe; in mechanical contrivances unquestionably. These, he says, an Italian may admire, but cannot always avail himself of, for they have grown out of conditions that do not exist on the peninsula, where no daily newspaper attains an output of 200,000 copies, like that of the *Century Magazine*, with its special presses and special facilities for binding. The American skill in composition by hand seemed to astonish Signor Barbèra, who records, on Mr. De Vinne's authority, five columns of the *Century* in ten hours by the deftest compositor, and four for the less rapid. He has in vain challenged any Italian printing-office to rival this achievement, and he asks, Why the difference? He is convinced that our authors have a much better knowledge of the printing process than have the Italian, and hence send in "copy" in a state much more favorable to swift and accurate bookmaking, with fewer repentances and alterations in style or in proportion; and whereas in Italy it is the exception for a work to be complete in manuscript before it is committed to the printer, here it is the rule.

We part from these agreeable pages with mention of some instructive comments on a little incident of a personal nature. Signor Barbèra had gone to the *Century* office with an idea of making arrangements to translate for publication at home the series of articles by Castelar, then beginning in the *magazine, on the centennial theme of Columbus and the discovery of America.* He was allowed to borrow the Spanish manuscript, and to his disappointment found that "nothing more vacuous, more falsely rhetorical and conventional, had ever emanated from the pen of a writer of the Latin race." He accordingly expressed to the editors his surprise that that sort of rubbish (*roba simile*) could please North American readers. "We agree with you," answered the editors, "but we accepted it and paid roundly for it because it was Castelar's rubbish, and did what we could to prune its exuberance." No doubt the editors had bought their pig in a poke, and made the best of a bad bargain, and they are not to be judged like those purveyors of "opinion" who systematically impose *names* in place of thoughts upon an undiscerning public, to sell their magazines.

With the Turkish Army in Thessaly. By Clive Bigham, author of 'A Ride through Western Asia.' With illustrations and maps. Macmillan. 1897.

This is a succinct account of the Thessalian campaign just closed, prepared by Mr. Clive Bigham, who, without republishing his recent correspondence for the London *Times*, has utilized his telegrams and letters from the seat of war in preparing a fresh and fair account of the military episodes in Thessaly. In writing this book, as in the preparation of his original accounts for the press, Mr. Bigham frankly takes a more or less pro-Turkish point of view. This does not, thanks to a remarkable clearness of mind in the writer, color adversely to the Greeks our author's record of actual facts. It does, however, somewhat influence his brief account of the causes of the war; it leads him also to minimize the part played on the Turkish side by Germans, especially in the case of Grumbkopf Pasha. He is also somewhat loath to admit the important rôle of Captain von Morgen as Edhem Pasha's adviser. The pleasant social relations which Mr. Bigham enjoyed while with the Turkish army made it only too easy for him to dissociate the various Turkish "gentlemen" with whom he consorted from the policy of massacre and oppression with which Turkey has been and still is identified. He may, however, cite good authority for saying of the Turkish rank and file that, given "capable and acceptable officers," "organization increased to the utmost pitch of efficiency," and " a thorough moral and physical training," "you will have the most exceptionally strong army that has ever been let loose on the earth."

The twelve illustrations given by Mr. Bigham add to the powerful interest of his story by reproducing the beauty of the stage setting of this recent drama. The view of the frontier north of Meteora, prefixed to his account of the hard-fought battle there, the picture of the Green Mosque, and the bridge at Larissa, and the view, while it was actually in progress, of the battle at Velestino—the one Greek victory recorded—give a most welcome reënforcement to the writer's studiously clear descriptions of the country. In addition, the book contains six maps and three plans, so carefully prepared that the reader can easily identify every village, however small, and every pass, however unimportant, to which reference is made in the narrative of events. It is no little tribute to Mr. Bigham's essential fairness in this record that we can feel that the central point of interest lies in the brave stand made at Velestino by Smolensky. Nor does his criticism of operations in the field fail to show that, after all, the Greeks showed one point of superiority over their opponents—a better training in the use of artillery, so far as they made any use of it at all. The final impression gained from this book is that the Turks outnumbered the Greeks, and, therefore, won the day. Neither side appears to have shown military competence. Of the Turks Mr. Bigham says: "The strategy of the Turks was essentially dilatory; but, though apparently overcautious, they failed to show a just appreciation of the real dangers of war. They entirely ignored the true object of attack, the enemy's base, and advanced with a strong right instead of a strong left wing. They omitted to push home their advantages, and even the little cavalry they had was rarely employed." The Greeks showed even greater lack of foresight. They failed to cut the wires at Tyrnavos, deserted ammunition at Pharsala and Domoko, generally omitted to protect their flanks, only once detailed a rear-guard, and never attempted to retard the Turkish advance by the simple expedients of blowing up a bridge or erecting any kind of obstacle.

The unity of effect achieved in this narrative is so happy that those who read it may almost regret as time misspent the attention given to piecemeal reports published in the daily press as the war proceeded. A certain falsity of perspective and lack of proportion is unavoidable so long as the events described are in progress, and renders the refashioning of a war-correspondent's original material before it appears in permanent form obviously necessary. This has rarely been done to better purpose than in the present book.

The History of Comines, Englished by Thomas Danett. Anno 1596. With an Introduction by Charles Whibley. 2 vols. [Tudor Translations.] London: D. Nutt. 1897.

Of this commendable series, reproducing in accessible form some of the masterpieces, forgotten or other, of old English prose, mention has already been made in our columns, in notices of Underdowne's 'Heliodorus' and North's 'Plutarch,' and the work now before us shows that the editor still has *la main heureuse.* While this translation has neither the linked sweetness and long-cadenced period of the one, nor the quaint and vivacious raciness of the other, it is a model of pure, manly, and majestic prose, stately without pomp, idiomatic without triviality, graphic without any straining for effect. No one can read Comines without thinking of Froissart, and it is to be hoped that the editor will see his way to reproducing the incomparable version of Lord Berners, which has almost unique merit in that it represents the best literary work of a period well-nigh unrepresented; for Berners, writing in his old age, uses the language and style of a previous generation.

Hardly more than half a century separates Froissart's work from that of Comines, and yet in passing from one to the other we pass into a new world. In the fourteenth century, chivalry, with its noble if somewhat fantastic ideals, still kept its hold upon men's minds. Knights still undertook daring deeds for glory or for ladies' smiles; vows upon the heron or the peacock were religiously performed. Kings could admire, praise, and bountifully reward heroic exploits, even though achieved by a foe. The man of gentle birth and breeding felt that a gulf separated him from the churl; and nobles and knights paused in their warfare to join in putting down the ferocious Jacquerie, as a thing that every gentleman was bound to suppress. Honor, or noble respect for one's self, and courtesy, or noble consideration for others, were still the cardinal virtues of the faith. In the world to which Comines introduces us, nearly all this has vanished. Success is the god of universal idolatry, and the end that justifies all means. Craft, fraud, and perfidy reign supreme. Everybody is plotting, perjuring himself, making and swearing to treaties only to gain time to break them effectually, carrying on secret negotiations on all sides, with doubly secret reservations. Prince A, having made a solemn alliance with Prince B, enters at once into secret negotiations with B's deadliest enemy, and, knowing that he is sure to be betrayed, takes care to be the first to let B know what he is doing, and to assure him that it is all pretence. The Constable of St. Pol is at one and the same time betraying Burgundy and England to France, and France and England to Burgundy. In the midst of all these monstrous webs of craft sits the arch-plotter Louis XI., reading their treasons like an open book, outwitting them all, and almost hoping to outwit Death himself.

Comines's portrait of this extraordinary monarch is a masterpiece. Far from being the gloomy, superstitious, and essentially vulgar tyrant of popular imagination, Louis was one of the most intelligent sovereigns that ever mounted a throne. He understood

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the age he lived in and the men he lived among, and he saw that policy in the end was always an overmatch for brute force. We might really call him a patriotic king, for the business of his life was to make France strong, united, and prosperous. To do this he had to lower the pride and sap the strength of his great feudatories, to pull down the haughty and exalt the lowly, and substitute the King's justice for the violence of turbulent barons. The tremendous task assigned him was to transform feudal into royal France, and that by sheer force of intellect. The historian recognizes the real greatness of the man, while not blind to his defects; and, after having traced his career to his strange and gloomy end in the dungeon-palace of Plessis, sums up the whole in this magnanimous fashion:

"All this above written I have rehearsed, not so much to publish the suspicions of the King our master, as partly to proove that the patient enduring of these passions being equall with those he had caused others to endure, and this sicknes being sharpe and troublesome to him, and the which he feared greatly before he fell into it, is to be accounted as a punishment God gave him in this world, to ease him in the world to come; and partly to give an example to those that shall come after him, to have some more compassion on their people than he had, and to be less rigorous in punishing than he was. Notwithstanding, for my part I am not able to accuse him, neither saw I ever a better Prince; for though himselfe pressed his subjects, yet would he suffer none other so to do, friend or foe."

Of the translator, Thomas Danett, almost nothing is known. Besides this version, he wrote two other works, a history of the Low Countries, epitomized from Guicciardini, and a continuation of the history of France from the death of Charles VIII. to that of Henry II.; but it is his translation of Comines that entitles him to an honorable place in literature. Nor is he merely a translator; he enriches his text with excellent notes, correcting errors, explaining phrases and customs, elucidating obscurities, and so forth, which show him to have been a man of wide and varied knowledge.

Of the beauty of this version something has already been said. It is in some respects even better than the original, for Comines inclines to dryness, and in his severe self-repression is sometimes rather colorless, while his translator delights in touching the narrative with brighter color and infusing warmer blood. He does not shrink from a homely idiom or vivid phrase. The weaker of two competitors "hath the woorse end of the staffe"; an historian who makes a blunder "misseth the cushion." The insurgent Liégeois seize an objectionable Master Robert, and, Comines tells us, "made several pieces of him"; the translator—"they hewed him into a number of small gobbets."

The following extract will give an idea of Danett's more vivacious style. Olivier, the King's barber and factotum, has been sent to Mary of Burgundy, richest heiress in Europe, to persuade her to put herself into Louis's wardship, and especially, if he could, to stir up a revolt in Ghent, where the lady was.

"Notwithstanding that he were not in their Towne-house to speake publikely to their Senate, bicause he meant first to assay if he could do any good with this young Princesse, yet was his enterprise smelt out; wherefore after he had sojourned a few daies in Gaunt, he was sent for to declare his message; whereupon he repaired to the Princes [Princess's] presence, being apparelled much more sumptuouslie than became one of his calling, and delivered his letters. The said Lady sate in hir chaire of estate, having about hir the Duke of Cleves and the bishop of Liege, with divers other noblemen and a great number of hir subjects. When she had read hir letter, she commanded him to declare his message. But he answered that he had nothing to say but to hir selfe alone. Whereupon it was told him that this was not the maner of their countrie, especially to commune in secret with this yoong Lady, being unmarried. But he still continued his former answer, that he had nothing to say but to hir selfe apart. Whereupon they threatened to make him say somewhat else; which words put him in feare. And I thinke verily that when he came to deliver his letter, he had not bethought him what to say; for this was not his principall charge, as you have heard. Thus Master Oliver departed for this time without further speech. Some of the Councell began to scorne him, as well bicause of his base estate as of his foolish speech and behaviour, but especially they of Gaunt (in a little village neere whereunto he was borne), scoffed and derided him, so far foorth that suddenly he fled thence, being advertised if he staide there any longer that he should be thrown into the river; which I thinke would have prooved true."

Matka and Kotik. A Tale of the Mist Islands. By David Starr Jordan. San Francisco: Whitaker & Ray Co. 1897. 8vo, pp. 76, with many illustrations.

This little volume is based on a lecture delivered in Washington after the return from Alaska of the seal commission of 1896, by President Jordan. His official position precluding a formal public statement of his observations and conclusions before the publication of his official report, the lecture took the form of an account of the vicissitudes of seal life, involving the personification of a family of seals. No official objection could be well raised against what purported to be a modern fairy tale, and thus the form in which the matter is presented is accounted for. As a matter of fact, the book gives an excellent and finely illustrated popular description of the life and habits of the seals. The pictures, being reproductions from photographs, are devoid of that element of caricature which has impaired the value of some other seal portraits. The book is elegant in its make-up, and no doubt will find a place in many libraries. The natural history behind its mask of fancy is abreast of the latest investigations.

The only criticism which seems called for relates to the denomination of the pelagic sealers as "pirates." Seal-killing or sheep-killing is cruel, by land or sea, and the starving pups of St. Paul Island, like the dying young birds of Florida heronries, are entitled to our active sympathy. The pelagic sealers, however, are merely exercising their undoubted rights in killing wild animals in the open sea; and the popular ignorance of international law should not be catered to, even in a work of fancy, by the employment of epithets which, in this connection, are abusive and unjust.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alexander, Mrs. Mrs. Crichton's Creditor. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 75c.
Betz, L. P. H. Heine and Alfred de Musset Zürich: Albert Müller.
Carlyle, Thomas. Montaigne, and Other Essays, Chiefly Biographical. Now first collected. London: James Gowans & Son; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Eastman, Charlotte W. The Evolution of Dodd's Sister. Rand, McNally & Co.
Frazer, Perry D. Canoe Cruising and Camping. "Forest and Stream" Publishing Co. $1.
Goodyear, W. H. Roman and Mediæval Art. Revised and enlarged. Meadville, Pa.: Flood & Vincent.
Hammond, S. T. Nursing vs. Dosing: A Treatise on the Care of Dogs. "Forest and Stream" Publishing Co. $1.
Macleane, Douglas. A History of Pembroke College, Oxford. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.

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Premiums on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1896, to 31st December, 1896,		$2,596,788 89
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1896		1,109,275 00
Total Marine Premiums		$3,706,063 89
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1896, to 31st December, 1896		$2,658,108 58
Losses paid during the same period	$1,249,999 01	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$646,420 25	

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:

United States and City of New York Stock; City Banks and other Stocks	$7,226,305 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	1,930,000 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at	1,187,621 97
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	843,596 96
Cash in Bank	175,229 25
Amount	$11,312,753 18

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the second of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1891 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the second of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled.

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